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LONDON, SATURDAY, JULY 20, 1839.

## REVIEWS

*Art of Painting.* By M. J. F. L. Mérimée. Translated, with Original Observations on British Art, by W. B. Sarsfield Taylor. Whitaker.

*On Painting.* By T. H. Fielding. Ackermann. Our brief essays upon Art, as will have been observed, attempt to deal with it rather in its breadth and mass, and momentous bearings, than in its particulars and minute arcana, however important these may seem to its disciples. Among the few truths which should, perhaps, out of mere pity, be concealed from a world apt to quake like a Logan-stone when at all unsettled, we do not reckon this—that art, even Phidian art, has claim to admiration but as handsome temple or house furniture, except so far as its attributes partake of the incorporeal and immortal, of philosophic principle and poetic spirit. Where its mechanism ends its real glory begins. Not that we despise mechanism; quite the reverse. Our complaints have always been that others too much despise it; that they practise too much a sort of *short-hand-system* in Art, endeavouring to realize their conceptions (or the value of them) by methods more facile than legitimate. Mechanism, when a means to accomplish great intellectual results, as fine pictures or statues, deserves the highest subordinate honour. But art were altogether beneath the level of discussion as materialized Poetry, if its poetic excellence did not much predominate over its mechanical: nor would we waste gall in condemning among our countrymen the adoption of any methods whatever for a rapid manufacture of movables by handcraftsmen just one degree above upholsterers. Could they invent painting-presses to throw off pictures like newspapers, and chipping-mills or sinuous grindstones to work out statues from the block as fast as logs are squared or hollowed by a backwoodsman, we should never exclaim against either process,—were chattel-property, and nothing further, the object. In truth, the Fine Arts form a link between the mechanical and the spiritual, therefore alternately employ our lowest faculties and our loftiest. Practitioners will of course over-value the former, such as they be; but amateurs, who are free not of the guild but from it, should bind their thoughts to every noble thing in its noblest nature, whereby the soul is secularly prepared for ascension, and therefore should contemplate, of choice or alone, the fine arts under their most ethereal character. Let the painter, because he can do no more, still preserve his amphibious rank between common operatives and pure intellectuals; let his divine spirit delicately wallow among the precious muds, from Indian ink up to ultra-marine, as the nearest step he can make towards putting off the smear and slime of handcraft occupation altogether; but the speculative brow of an amateur need rarely besmirch itself with one tinge even so terrestrial as belongs to the rainbow. Those fabulous beings said to feed on perfume, feed after all upon the reek and sweat of earth distilled in flowery alembics to an impalpable aroma; yet may human realities nourish the better element of their beings on a far more sublimated food than the effluvium of Elysian amaranth itself—thought. This is our highest function. At least where we have a choice let us make the worthiest. What would the bees think of that sordid brother who, instead of probing the blossoms for delicious beverage, burrowed under the stem like a beetle, to find the manure at its root? What an object he crawls forth, blind with the

odious scum he carries off, and his wings clogged with soil!

We do and shall commend the practical so often, that a little praise of sound transcendentalism may now and again be safely permitted us. Our utilitarian principle is, as we wish to have our maxims on every subject, of the widest diameter all ways possible: we consider man under his multifold capacity, of a material and spiritual existence, a finite creature with regard to one life, an infinite with regard to another, a bundle of humiliating wants and desires and weaknesses, a being of sublime aspirations and abilities. This varied nature of man we find for the most part left out of view by our minute philosophers; they will not go mental circuit throughout his whole kingdom, but are content to pettigog in some province of it. A Swiss emmet thinks his own little hillock all the Alps, and a purblind mill-horse his contracted round a tour of the globe. We do not speak against single pursuits: indeed, perhaps the pretension so usual among our choice spirits to vast versatility of taste and talent, renders the boasted "spread of knowledge" a wide shallow compared with the great deeps so few and separate heretofore: minds are seldom gulfly enough to contain the tribute of many streams—let us ask how long a shrimp would take to draw the whole ocean through his gills, or a flounder to feel all its sandy grit in succession beneath him? Preferences for, but no prejudices against, this or that species of intellectual culture or contemplation, were reasonable—enthusiastic love of certain pursuits, without exalting each little primrose path into a zodiac from which you yourself, one of the stars, look down upon this nether world. We find just such a monomania rather too predominant now-a-days amongst our countrymen—a mania quite consistent with calculating worldliness. The bias in the popular head at present makes it turn too much the one way, and that is, unluckily, towards the low numbers instead of all the nine: material objects are sought by us with a sweat of brow far beyond what the original curse requires, as if we thought it a benediction—with a labour Hercules never underwent, to reach his ne plus ultra. Yet those objects, being truly ends, for in themselves they cease, have no more permanence than adhesion of dust can give them: whilst to gain spiritual, and therefore ever-durable objects, our most energetic characters seem as listless to advance or guide others on the route as signposts bereft of their arms. The very word "transcendentalism" strikes us icicle-stiff, or perhaps stirs us to ridicule like idiots who laugh at thunder, neither feeling awe at its sublime announcements, nor knowing how to render of fixed use the fugitive efficiency of its fires. Yet, may we not aim above our heads without *Whacum's* ambition, to hit a star? What, after all, does the terrible meaning of transcendental amount to? Why to no more than—the higher contemplations of things in their higher qualities! There is a kind of common sea-level to which all elevations of thought and subjects for thought may be referred as a standard: whatever rises above this, less or more, is to that degree transcendent. Transcendental views are merely those taken from pinnacles instead of flats, at all the shining eminences within a panorama, instead of the little objects and obscurities within a limited landscape: nor are the loftiest summits to which genuine transcendentalism mounts, though above common sight, more *en l'air* than the peaks of Chimborazo or Chandrasichara are flying islands. Very true, clouds often gather on the mountain-tops—but do mists never thicken on the plain? do not fog love the lowest ground? Nay, do not all three, fog, mists, and clouds, rise from the *sea-level*

perpetually, while they rest on the pinnacles only by accident? We admit contemplative occupations liable to abuse: are worldly liable to none? If those sometimes take our wits a flight to the moon, do these never steep them in the sludge of earth? Is the one extreme, an erratic mind, worse than the other, a grovelling; or is he more a madman who would feed his bodily person upon ether than he who would batte his immortal spirit upon ox-beef? There may be a sound as well as an unsound transcendentalism—an *English* as well as a *German*. Icarus who soared too high fell into the sea, but Dedalus, who imagined and wrought the wings, because he kept the middle air between earth and heaven, flew over.

Why should certain innocent words excite this *delirium tremens* among our nervous countrymen? Let not the most thinking people take literary panic—transcendentalism is no foreign invasion big with popes and pretenders, it is led on by no French monarch or Van Tromp that threatens the land with a plague of frogs, or to sweep our fleets from the channel with a besom of destruction. We may remain, despite of it, as practical and as prosperous as ever. Indeed the prejudice against transcendentalism arises much from our having imported a spurious kind, when we had done better to rear a growth of our own: for the germ of it, as sound as an acorn of our native oak, has long lain in our soil. That poet, perhaps more genuinely English than any other, a yeoman for thorough wholesomeness of moral temperament and nurture, neither Latinized, Italianized, nor Frenchified, like Chaucer, Spenser, Milton, but full of the racy, vigorous, insular spirit itself; who borrowed, as the ocean does of the rivers, without sensible change in savour or even augmentation to his original copiousness—Shakespeare affords familiar examples of transcendentalism, familiar enough to have their deeper nature forgotten. His best Soliloquies belong to this style—abstract, speculative, spiritual, dealing with the shadowy, the visionary, yet always holding the substance of clear poetic truth or thought within them; distinguished from the current dialogue by their rapt, exalted vein, and their ideas stretched as far into the unknown and the future as reasoning or imagination can lead them. Drama, being essentially practical, of course restrained the poet; but besides that throughout his plays he often becomes the absorbed contemplatist (v. g. Measure for Measure—"To lie in cold obstruction," &c.), his Hamlet and Macbeth are both transcendental thinkers:—he had himself, beyond doubt, with all his love of nature and the realities, a deep tinge of transcendentalism in his genius, which his delight to walk the dread circle amid creatures of the element, spirits, fairies, &c. evinces. Another familiar example, not English though naturalized in England, is Longinus's treatise on the "Sublime": this name, mistranslating the original one, no more characterizes the work than the "Heights of British Mountains" does the "Beauties of England and Wales." ΗΕΠΙ ΥΨΟΥΣ, in fact, alludes to the "higher qualities," whether sublime or otherwise, of those works considered by the critic. We need not, perhaps, add that these two instances of transcendentalism are given less as exemplifying its substantive form or supremest mood, for which a drama furnishes brief and a critique very partial occasion, than as manifesting its noble and useful applicabilities, besides its having in our literature a firm foundation, laid long ago, whereon to build if agreeable. What is called German transcendentalism we should never seek to naturalize, being a noxious weed, and, moreover, even where it flourished, rotten at the root: we would bring over in pieces no *châteaux d'Allemagne*.

mayne, which resemble the monuments of skulls raised by Tamerlane, grotesque, unsightly, and pseudo-sublime, leaps of hollowness and hideousness. On the other hand, deeming spiritual literature the literature most akin to our advanced civilization, as well as corrective of its ultra-practical tendencies—for civilization introduces at once more abstractness into its modes of thought and materialism into its modes of practice—we would encourage the development of a sound transcendentalist principle among our superior writers. To be sure, if unsound, none were preferable; but what improves much by unsoundness, except a medlar? Bacon declares "there is a superstition against superstition;" we submit there is also a mania against manias, "when men think to do best if they go furthest from the opposite mania." How much better comes he off who dies mad through fear of hydrophobia, than he whom the dog has bitten? If Chimera pursue us, is it very sagacious to seek refuge in the jaws of Demogorgon? Similar to this policy we consider that of inoculating a people with the pus of materialism, as a preservative against the transcendental pock, prescribing us a surfeit to keep out the wind, recommending us sedulous embrutification lest we should become too much etherealized for earth! Why should either extreme seduce us? One would think the Pythagorean mean were anything but golden, or Englishmen had surely not been so shy of it. Once more we say a sound transcendentalism exalts or co-operates to exalt the imperishable mind, materialism only profits the perishable creature.

Some essayists have the art of being brief and tedious at the same time. We hope this short disquisition does not entitle us to rank among them. It has more than the usual object of such essays, meant as it is to serve an ulterior purpose, a double purpose: first, that of announcing the general principles which dictate our criticism on the Fine Arts, in their judgment about which we think most periodical censors proceed upon too narrow ones, or none whatever; secondly, that of introducing certain remarks pertinent to the works now under notice. An enlarged criticism is always, in degree, transcendental, i. e. sets forth, as far as possible, the higher contemplations of the subjects in their higher qualities. Even low subjects have their relative heights; even faults sometimes rise to a bad eminence: so our principle would appear sufficiently comprehensive. There may exist works also, which, like the present, admit of a technical critique besides a poetical or spiritual; and if that be required it must be given: but in that too the higher considerations should have place, and a kind of transcendentalism exalt them. To avoid the minute, the local, the temporary, the personal, is a stale axiom, an old principle, indeed so very old as to be almost obsolete among critics: our principle is more positive and more expansive throughout all the dimensions of art: critics should, having a choice, prefer, as the higher, poetical considerations to technical, philosophic to anecdotic, pregnant to barren facts, moral qualities to sensible (e. g. deep sentiment in a picture to rich colour), ideas which link the arts with human knowledge in general, to those which isolate them, &c. Here is, we submit, an application of transcendentalism to practice as "utilitarian" as the application of pure mathematics to pendulums or air-pumps. We hope our digression has had the effect of familiarizing the word to popular ears, and suggesting how the thing itself may, indeed ought, to be made a lever for the exaltment not only of our artistic literature, but of our national taste and intellectual character throughout their whole domain. *Fas est et ab hoste doceri.*

The preceding remarks have enabled us to

prove, if nothing else, that transcendental considerations of art are alone worthy to excite general, permanent, and serious interest; that its mechanism and so forth are matters to be discussed by the guild of painters, sculptors, &c., not by the lords and commons of literature; in fine, that its handicraft merits should at least no further occupy our attention than as they serve to evolve, illustrate, enhance the philosophic and poetic. Let us, however, on this point add, by way of a caveat,—that all the figurative flowers which poesy can pluck from the sides of Parnassus will give no more life or vigour to Criticism than all the real ones could to a corpse: that all the native taste for art which can teach aspiring youth to scariify the paternal wainscot with penknife intaglios, or besmirch it with charcoal sketches, will no more make a sound connoisseur than the taste for wine a judge of Anacreon, or for horsemanship a great field-officer. Unless the very best original works of art throughout Europe have been visited and studied, it were as impossible to become a good critic, as a good comparative anatomist from having killed your own meat: comparison is the ground of all true criticism. To what we may call extensive gallery-knowledge, must be joined acquaintance with the best books upon art: and any novice who thinks his "native taste" independent of their aid, forgets how small the sum-total number one makes added to nought. Besides, such a power of perceiving how artistic result is modified, or controlled, by mechanism, as may repress precipitate and fanciful opinions, can alone save from the incessant peril of ludicrous error, mischief to the artist whether through false praise or false blame, and misdirection to the popular judgment. Those three requisites above mentioned are the thorough-stones which tie the facing of poetry to the main wall of the subject, and without which the former only disfigures not strengthens the latter. Brilliant and dazzling flashes of imagination may indeed be thrown upon art, but nine times out of ten they as fantastically illumine and confusedly discolour it as the prismatic spectrum does a beautiful picture receiving it: at least they may be likened to those rays which kissing the surface of a fountain give brightness to its breadth, but not those which piercing downwards make its depth and entire mass translucent. Poetry should be something else than a mere varnish spread over art to bring out the hue or bestow lustre—it should be the quintessence itself of art extracted with subtlest skill, and fixed in a form of words to render its fugitive nature fully appreciable by the eyes of the understanding. But the poetry of what entitles itself criticism is oftenest neither one nor 't other of these things, not even a varnish—it is the tinsel crown and strumpet rouge and paraphernalia of garish streamers and artificial flowers which disfigure, far from embellishing, the beautiful Madonna of a procession. Effeminate jargon of this kind—worse than gibberish, for that has a sense and a system—forms too much the language of connoissance among our professors not less than dilettanti; far too much froth of the brain, blown into splendid bubbles, passes through the main-pipes of periodical literature as the living waters of criticism.

Let us lead down these various thoughts to their more immediate subject. While contemplating the supreme works of art, we have been always saddened by what struck us as the vast disproportion between the end sought, and the means to accomplish it. We have striven to sear our mental conscience against any such impressions, yet still they return. Is the decline of art since Grecian perfection due, peradventure, to some latent misgiving like this in the public mind? *Honor ait artes.* But day after day the world

looks for more and more to be elicited from less and less: it sets genius the Egyptian task to make bricks without straw, and gives honour now to economy of means, not cumulation. As to produce something out of nothing is the highest act of power, so to produce nothing out of something is the lowest of impotence. Towards which of these extremes do the Fine Arts chiefly tend, though far we grant from either? Phidias—the god-maker by pre-eminent right—Phidias devotes his sublime genius to realize a few images out of Homer; and after all fails to reach their perfect grandeur! Or admit he succeeded, nay surpassed the models—where are his miracles now? We cannot even in Hamlet's vein imagine a rib of the Olympian Jupiter stave to a modern "beer-barrel," nor one ivory undulation of Minerva's bosom preserved as a Romaine candle-clip or a Turkish platter. Some few fragments only of the Parthenon statues, perhaps by his pupils, remain, and these at the mercy of every menial who carries a rushlight through that huge old magazine of combustibles—the British Museum, and every beleaguered bombardier who chooses to drop his shells upon the Acropolis. Truly such divine genius as Phidias possessed was laid out to little purpose: it reminds us of the mythic bathos—Pythian Apollo, whose darts pierce the universe, shoots a *snake* with them! Where are the works of Apelles? evaporated into the mere breath of his fame. Let us jump two thousand years: what has become of Leonardo's masterpieces? One, the Cartoon, vanished from this world not long after himself, the other is but the pale and almost invisible ghost of its former beauty. Raffael, it may be said, served a severe apprenticeship to art from his cradle, gave up the whole intellectual man to a single pursuit,—what are his great Frescos now? Half ruin, half restoration. How long will even the ruins last? Why, till the next Infallible pleases to employ another audacious desecrator in extinguishing their divine spirit, or falsifying their character with additions of his own; till some second *Palmaroli* deserve the thanks of their Proprietor, and the execrations of all posterity! As for Michaelangelo—omnipotent Michael—sculptor, painter, architect, engineer—at once the Tubal-cain and the Methuselah of modern artificers, cunning in all work, and rejoicing in his hoary strength, that grew tougher like an oak, to the last of accumulated years—what be the monuments left by a genius and an ambition so gigantic, a frame and an enthusiasm so enduring? Forsooth some dozen statues—most of them the rough crag-work of his cyclopean chisel, not its sculpture: four frescos, two of which (the Pauline,) are begrimed past all ablution with soot and smoke, as if they had decorated the walls of Pandemonium instead of a Christian temple; a third (the Judgment,) is one mass of disharmony and decomposition; the fourth (that on the Sistine vault,) much injured and fast decaying. There also remains a small picture in distemper at Florence, well-preserved, but a mere *sinew* of the Hercules, from which he could scarce be measured; and a Cupola cracked on all sides,† despite its girdle of rock, like a volcano ready to burst; with half a dozen other inferior architectural productions. Wherefore is it that an artistic power so prodigious and prolonged should have taken, by its permanent creations, so loose a hold on immortality? a hold which some few ages additional will dissolve almost altogether? Michaelangelo did indeed produce a very small number of works, compared with his powers and his long licence to exercise them. We have often thought, that the true cause of this was not alone his thorough methods of study (twelve years at

† It has been of late repaired, and doubtless may be renewed by parts for a long time; but even a thousand years are of little force in considerations such as the present.

dissection,) and great elaborateness of workmanship when he finished; his poetic and philosophic avocations; the noble sacrifice of his time in fortifying his native walls, and the unworthy waste of it by his mitred employers, in collecting and preparing materials for a huge Mausoleum never completed, in road-making, quarrying, &c.; nor yet was it his rejection of journey-man aid, so incredible to the master-sculptors of our mercenary times,† or his aspiration after perfect excellence, which led him to destroy his apparent failures. We suspect there may have been still another cause that paralyzed his energies throughout long periods as a productive artist. When the outburst of youthful enthusiasm was over, a shadow may have crossed his spirit, and thrown its gloom on the visionary prospects of his future fame: material Rome lay a shattered colossus in mouldering limbs around him; whatever art had done for her had almost all become dust, the remnant crumbled day by day, and what came from earth must return to it: how brief an existence compared with the duration of her monuments purely mental and moral, which must last as long as the personal identity of man? He might have thought too, how small the infusion of mind, how vast a disproportion of mere mechanism, went to the noblest work of the chisel, the pencil, or the trowel. Though of a spirit co-ordinate with Dante's, can the philosophic and poetic genius developed in his productions and in the latter's bear any parallel? those borrowed (as works of art must be) from these or the Bible almost wholly; and even what is original about them, was this enough to afford scope for such a mind as that of Michaelangelo? Say it was—such productions being perishable, we hold the mind expended on them, expended to a great degree in vain: ascribe ever so much mind to the perfection of mechanism, we have the same rejoinder—its results are perishable, and the more exquisite the more caducous. Did so manifest, so mournful a truth never oppress his enthusiasm as it does at times ours—that to have any chance of longevity, Art must limit itself to a few rude combinations of masses and rectilinear forms like the Egyptian or Indian, scarce nameable as *art* at all, however ideally sublime? Yet suppose the Pyramids—built up, if we measure time by the number of lives crushed together for their completion, by centuries of toil—suppose the Pyramids last Homer-long, who will think of balancing their involved modicum of artistic genius, lost among so many tons weight of mechanism, against the genius of a few *Rhapsodia*, constructed perhaps with efforts no less brief and pleasurable than those at which a bee sings? That Michaelangelo disdained one branch of art—oil-painting—is known: that he was averse to a second—fresco-painting—is likewise certified: he accepted architectural commissions rather than sought them: sculpture alone he loved as an employment, and this, Vasari tells us, much for the sake of its healthfulness; though probably its severe immaculate beauties attracted his own stern nature, its peculiar sublime, such a task to bring out from so few elements, kindled the pride of his genius that took delight in stretching, like a mountain-pine, aloft towards heaven from a barren rock. He did by no means look upon Art as beneath him, nor, we surmise, as quite up to his reach; he made it rather a pastime than a profession. Raffael boasts to his uncle of the money he had acquired; Michael built his Dome gratuitously, was begged by two pontiffs into painting all his

† This particular, however, goes a good way towards accounting for the fewness of his productions. He even ground his own colours. Not one example can be cited of a work by him in which he admitted one stroke of an assistant hand: half of Raffael's works, it may be said, were done by deputy, multitudes from his mere sketches. Sanzio had a spouse of the manufacturer about him. Michael only assisted others.

frescos, spat upon the easel, talked platonic love to Vittoria Colonna, and wrote metaphysical sonnets. We cannot suppress a belief that he gave up his time unaccounted for by biographers to meditative, as worthier of him than the finest handicraft, pursuits, as everlastingly lucrative, instead of fraught, like the latter, with present wealth he did not want, and a fame of which a few ages, he felt, would destroy every foundation it was built on. Art engaged, then, too general esteem for any one to despise it altogether; but the mind of Buonarotti, scornful and supereminent, may have, through his later years, lapsed into a "strenuous inertia"—a life contemplative and abstract—except while the purposes of healthful labour or recreation, obedience to religious or patriotic duties, made it practical. He was, in fact, never a mere artist,—always something besides, and beyond: hence his artistic works are no measure of his life, either mental or physical. We see that Da Vinci, who lived to an old age like him, and loved mechanism even more than he did, has left still fewer works of his hands, though many of his mind, printed and unprinted. This also would seem to denote, in a contemporaneous and a kindred spirit, some prepossession against the practice of the fine arts, founded, perhaps, on their huge expenditure of toil and time, for the embodiment of so little poetry and philosophy, compared with what a few aphorisms of his "Trattato," a "few scantlings of his Inventions," could set forth at once; and *vice versa* on the small expenditure of means requisite to demolish what had cost so much to create. His own "Battle of the Standard" he himself saw had little more permanence than a battle in the clouds,—disappearing as he painted it; his mighty rival's Cartoon was cut to pieces soon after by knaves or connoisseurs, and any fools or malignants could destroy almost any such work at almost any moment—years must do so ere long. Was it worth Leonardo's while to earn a short-lived fame with sweat of his brow, wherein little from his brain could be mingled to spiritualize what had such a strong taint of mortality about it? No: he preferred employing all his mind in philosophical speculations, rather than but part of it in manual productions. The various works of other "Ancient Masters"—i. e., be it observed, done only three or four ages ago—what is their present condition? One half extinct at the hands of Time or quack restorers: of the other half, some are fire-screens, some window shutters, some reversed signboards, or renewed ones—the Baptist's head being perchance turned into the Saracen's, and St. Francis touched up into the Bear with a ragged Staff: almost all which still court our admiration are the blotch and patchwork of broking picture-menders, or muddling experimentalists, or audacious "Dominus-do-allis," who undertake to give Titians and Rubenses a *new coat*, house-painter fashion, by contract. Very few specimens of pictorial art have preserved their integrity, and even those which have taken from age a softer, richer hue, are only as mellowing leaves that enjoy a long Autumn before their final decay. If three hundred years were sufficient to reduce the works of Raffael, Michaelangelo, Leonardo, and their contemporaries, into this state, what will be their state after three hundred years more? Annihilation. Where will the starry host of pictures now blazing on the walls of modern exhibition rooms, parlours, cabinets, corridors,—crowding their brilliancies together, like nebulae, each with a lustrous freshness, promising, like Hebe's cheek, immortal youth despite all old Chronos can do to wrinkle, and crack, and weather-beat its beautiful complexion—where will the major part of these be visible at the end of three hundred years? Why, in "No-man's Land!" If an

enthusiast about them dive to the lowest apartments of that dusky museum destined to receive most human works—the Cave of Oblivion—he may perchance see many of said chefs-d'œuvre there before the last volume of fugitive poems. That were the likeliest place to look for some of the very brightest among them, as stars are best seen at the bottom of a well. Alas, alas! Bembo's petty epigrams will long outlive Raffael's sublimest pictures,—a popular ballad has a far better chance than the most enduring masterpiece by a modern painter, to be burnt out of existence at the last conflagration! Who, then, but must deplore that so much genius, labour, care, solitude, should have been sunk in works liable to destruction every hour,—certain of it ere many years? Planting oaks is a less painful and precarious occupation; more worldly useful, pregnant with results as ornamental, as perennial, for the trees flourish proudest when the pictures begin to decay. If, indeed, we are to class the art of painting among the minor utilities, and told that genius, &c., have been no more thrown away upon it than upon any other art requisite to social comfort, our arguments and lamentations must be confessed equally superfluous: but if this were the sole use and end of art, its welfare or ill-fare had never engaged our attention half so much as the art of Baking or Brewing, nor should we have bewailed half so much its perishable nature as the mustiness incident to stale bread, or the sourness to long-kept beer. In such a case we should neither have written this lengthy preface to a review of the treatises before us, nor postponed the review itself to a second paper.

*Speech of the Hon. Henry Clay, in the Senate of the United States, on the subject of Abolition Petitions, Feb. 7th, 1839.* Boston, Munroe & Co.; London, Wiley & Putnam.

*Remarks on the Slavery Question, in a Letter to Jonathan Phillips, Esq.* By William E. Channing.

We take up the subject of American slavery and anti-slavery, not with the intention of giving it, or any branch of it, a thorough investigation, but because so much has been said and written on the subject, that our readers may desire to know, generally, how the great contest goes on. The leading movements are easily collected from publications like those now before us; and far more correctly than from the works of the most intelligent travellers, who, after all, can be but imperfectly acquainted with the involved interests of the several States, and the deep-rooted opinions and prejudices of the people on this vital question. We couple them together, because Dr. Channing's Remarks are, to a certain extent, a reply to Mr. Clay's Speech. It must, however, be observed, that Mr. Clay directs his attack especially against the Abolitionists—the party as such—and that the Doctor distinctly states that he does not stand forth as *their* defender—he is not one of them—he "declines all connexion with them"—"nothing would induce him to become responsible for their movements;" but "Mr. Clay's Speech, however intended for the Abolitionists, contains passages at which every man interested in the removal of slavery must take offence; and to these my remarks will be confined. The most important part of it, indeed, has no special bearing on the Abolitionists, but concerns equally all the free States." These remarks are significant: they direct attention to the position of many Americans, as regards this subject, which is not generally understood. Our readers, perhaps, will be surprised, some will be disappointed, to hear such declarations from Dr. Channing: they do not understand how such a man can be *no Abolitionist*; why he thinks it necessary to disclaim all

connexion with that party, at the same time that he puts himself forward in the brunt of this great battle against slavery, and considers himself evidently as representing and sustaining the interest and the argument of "all the free States." The fact is, the American Anti-Slavery party are divided: the "Abolitionists" means merely a considerable number who move together, and who have agreed to appropriate that name to themselves as a body. Generally, too, it appears to be quietly given up to them, even by those who, though equally engaged in opposing slavery, yet keep themselves aloof from the party, fighting either individually, or after a sort of guerilla fashion, skirmishing about in bodies, greater or less, as they can agree together. The circumstances leading to this rather unfortunate state of things are difficult to be understood on this side the Atlantic. We can, therefore, only suggest to all, the wisdom of a charitable construction of other men's motives and feelings. It is manifest that we must not assume that every American is in favour of slavery, who does not call himself an Abolitionist. The case of Dr. Channing, alone, should warn us against this. It is a fair inference, from both his conduct and his expressions, that a numerous body of his countrymen stand, at this moment, as regards slavery and anti-slavery, in the same position with himself: they are, in other words, not merely opposed to slavery, but are Abolitionists, in the *European* sense of the word: yet they "disclaim all connexion" with the Abolition party in America.

This explanation is due to all parties. The "Abolitionists" have had, in a great measure, the credit they deserve,—and they deserve much. Miss Martineau may have been rather an enthusiastic eulogist of their virtues, but it is the very nature and merit of such spirits, in such a cause, to raise up voices of praise in their favour. Dr. Channing, himself, yields to none in his admiration of their patriotism, their perseverance, their true love of liberty, their conscientious benevolence; and this at the same time that he laments their errors as fearlessly as he does those of the advocates of slavery. But let us not forget that the Abolitionists in America are but one detachment of the great, powerful, and growing community which is now contending against slavery. No doubt, they are the largest division of that force anywhere acting together. For aught we know, they are almost the only body who keep together in what may be called a state of efficient, organized, ostensible discipline and demonstration. This is to be regretted. Granting all that Dr. Channing says or intimates of the errors of that party, we are of opinion that they have gained more by their co-operation, than they have lost in any other way;—done more than their disconnected anti-slavery countrymen, who fight—more unexceptionably, perhaps, in other respects—on the guerilla plan we have mentioned. According to Capt. Marryat, who is opposed to them, "the Abolitionists decided the last election in the State of Ohio;" the Federal Government itself, he says, is not so powerful as the Society, "which every day adds to its members."

But, be this as it may, it is manifest that the anti-slavery party in America is divided, and this should be made known. The slaveholders understand it well enough: there is no such want of system on their side: they form one single solid phalanx, and the voice of a great leader is to them as the voice of the shepherd to his flock. All this sufficiently appears in Mr. Clay's speech. Everything about it shows—what indeed we have learned from too many sources to doubt the fact—that this distinguished orator comes out on this occasion,

as the champion of the slave cause. It was thought a good time for a grand manifesto on the part of the southern slave-holders, and Mr. Clay was their chosen champion. He has not, indeed, been generally considered as an absolute "slavery man;" Mr. Calhoun, we believe, may better be called the leader of that interest in Congress. Mr. Clay has rather affected a more liberal policy. He has been a warm Colonizationist, and is the President of the Colonization Society. This was in his favour. The South wanted just such a man. There was an appearance of disinterestedness about him. It might look as if he had been won over by force of mere conscience, and so came forward to make the best amends for former aberrations which was now in his power. At any rate, he was a popular man,—a politician of great weight—a tactician of great skill—an orator unsurpassed in his own country: no man can do the southern interest better service. Dr. Channing says:—

"I have nothing to do with his motives. It is common to ascribe the efforts of politicians to selfish aims. But why mix up the man with the cause? In general, we do well to let an opponent's motives alone. We are seldom just to them. Our own motives, on such occasions, are often worse than those we assail. Besides, our business is with the arguments, not the character, of an adversary."

This sounds well; and yet there is something in it more than meets the ear,—or rather there is something *not* in it, not expressed. The word "motives," the intimation that something has been surmised and said on that point, by somebody less charitable than the Doctor himself, is sufficient. The truth is, that Mr. Clay, as we said, is an able, eloquent, warm-hearted man: that the interests of humanity, and of liberty, have often beheld in him their foremost champion, where the *venue* was laid in some other country than his own,—where Greece, or Poland, or the Revolutionary republics of South America were concerned: but, alas! circumstances will have their influences, and circumstances themselves change from day to day. In politics, especially in such electioneering communities as the American States, they change sadly and often. Dr. Channing says,—

"I observe that Mr. Clay, in giving us no hope for the extinction of slavery but in the extinction of the coloured race, puts an end to all expectation of aid in this respect from the Colonization Society, an institution of which he is an ardent friend, and, for aught I know, is now the President."

We could, indeed, point to speeches by Mr. Clay, delivered before this same Society within a few years, in which he has most strenuously argued that the plan was, or might be made, a sufficient remedy for slavery. Now see the difference. He says, speaking of the slaves,—

"If the question were an original question, whether, there being no slaves within the country, we should introduce them, and incorporate them into our society; few, if any, of the citizens of the United States would be found to favour their introduction. But that is not the question. The slaves are here; no practical scheme for their removal or separation from us has been yet devised or proposed; and the true inquiry is, What is best to be done with them? The slaves are here, and here must remain," &c.

The inference, and even the express conclusion, is, that they must "remain" as slaves. Colonization can do nothing for them; and emancipation can do no more. Emancipation, we are told, amounts to extermination. Either the blacks or the whites must be the masters.

How can any observer—how, especially, a distant and disinterested one, place weight in Mr. Clay's vacillating arguments, or faith in his sincerity? We will not say he is insincere; but interest is a strong persuader, and political ambition is not the least stimulating of motives.

\* For an account of Liberia, the American Colony of Free Negroes, see *Athenæum*, No. 205.

This, united perhaps with some real apprehensions, and some weariness of the endless discussion of the whole subject, have had their effect upon him; they were sufficient, let us hope, without his being a candidate for the Presidency. What effect *this* circumstance may have had, can be imagined by those who know what northern and southern, and free and slave politics, mean, in the American vocabulary, especially of politicians. Dr. Channing alludes to this, to show the interest which the North has in the whole subject. The institution, he says, affects the political action and character of the entire community:—

"It determines its parties, decides important measures of government, is a brand of discord, a fountain of bitter strife; and, whilst it lasts, will never suffer us to become truly one people." Again:—"Congress must be an arena, in which Northern and Southern parties will be arrayed against each other; and that portion of the Union, which has the strongest bond of union within itself, will, on the whole, master the other. A Northern man thinks it no hard thing to show, that slavery has chiefly ruled the country, has deeply influenced Northern commerce and manufactures, has played off Northern parties against each other, whilst a Southern man undoubtedly can produce a list of grievances in return."

This explanation throws light on what would otherwise seem strange and unintelligible on this side the Atlantic—that such a speech as this of Mr. Clay's, a complete, elaborate manifesto of the slave interest, should be thus formally and solemnly proclaimed in the halls of Congress, and yet no formal reply. The Northern party are dumb as the mighty warriors of the Israelites, when the giant came out with his trumpet and his weaver's beam. We must not, however, accuse all indiscriminately, who are silent, of a slavish acquiescence, or a selfish fear. Other circumstances are to be considered, which we, on this side the water, are apt to overlook. The whole subject has, to many well-meaning Americans, become inconceivably wearisome: they are not blind to its real interest and importance; but discussion carried on as it has there been, has worn them out. Some, indeed, deem it useless to discuss it any more; some much worse than useless, especially in Congress itself, which nobody in America supposes to have any power of abolishing slavery, save in the little district of Columbia. We have alluded to the divisions of the American anti-slavery party. Mr. Clay gives his own account of this party. We do not consider it a just one, but it will help us to understand the subject:—

"The first are those who, from sentiments of philanthropy and humanity, are conscientiously opposed to the existence of slavery, but who are no less opposed, at the same time, to any disturbance of the peace and tranquillity of the Union, or the infringement of the powers of the States composing the Confederacy. In this class may be comprehended that peaceful and exemplary society of 'Friends,' one of whose established maxims is an abhorrence of war in all its forms, and the cultivation of peace and good-will amongst mankind. The next class consists of apparent abolitionists,—that is, those who, having been persuaded that the right of petition has been violated by Congress, co-operate with the abolitionists for the sole purpose of asserting and vindicating that right. And the third class are the real ultra-abolitionists, who are resolved to persevere in the pursuit of their object at all hazards, and without regard to any consequences, however calamitous they may be. With them the rights of property are nothing; the deficiency of the powers of the general Government is nothing; the acknowledged and incontestable powers of the States are nothing; civil war, a dissolution of the Union, and the overthrow of a government in which are concentrated the fondest hopes of the civilized world, are nothing. A single idea has taken possession of their minds, and onward they pursue it, overlooking all barriers, reckless and regardless of all consequences."

Dr. Channing intimates that the latter description is not wholly without truth. Hence, in fact, his actual alienation from the Abolitionists—the third class of Mr. Clay; and hence the fact, that few men are more obnoxious than Dr. Channing to that party. They openly assert that he has done, and is doing them more harm than good,—more harm than their worst enemies. We do not consider that such objurgations weigh much against Dr. Channing, or the party of which he is the representative,—a party unorganized and unostentatious, indeed, but certainly not undecided, and we trust not inefficient. And yet we are bound to add that Mr. Clay exaggerates the case against the Abolitionists. He says elsewhere, the Abolitionists wish to free the slaves “without moral preparation.” This is untrue. They demand immediate emancipation, indeed, but that includes the idea of immediate preparation, as a matter of course,—as a matter of intrinsic, self-evident necessity. Preparation is a part of the very process of emancipation in their view. They may not proclaim the details of their plan; they may not have agreed upon any; but this is nothing to the purpose. The slave-holders would not accept it if they had. Emancipation once resolved on, there would be no difficulty about “preparation.” A great part of the Abolitionists, we think, concur with Dr. Channing in what he says on this point:—

“Mr. Clay seems particularly to dread immediate emancipation. But this, in the common acceptation of the words, is not the only way of giving freedom. Let the wisdom of the South engage in this cause heartily, and in good faith, and it is reasonable to expect that means of a safe transition to freedom, not dreamed of now, would be devised. This work we have no desire to take out of the master’s hands, nor would we thrust on him our plans for adoption. I indeed think, that emancipation, in one sense of the phrase, should be immediate; that is, the right of property in a human being should be immediately disclaimed. But though private ownership should cease, the State would be authorized and bound to provide for its own safety. The legislature may place the coloured race under guardianship, may impose such restraints as the public order shall require, and may postpone the full enjoyment of personal liberty even to the next generation. There was a time, when these safeguards seemed to me needful. Happily the West Indies are teaching, and, I trust, will continue to teach, that immediate emancipation, in the full sense of the words, is safer than a gradual loosening of the chain.”

We cannot follow the course of either of these pamphlets, able as they both are, and rife with the deepest interest, especially, as being so emphatically indications and representations of the state of things, and the strength of the argument, between the two great parties into which, on the whole, America may be said to be now divided. Some points, however, we must notice. One is the following remarkable acknowledgment of Mr. Clay:—

“Various causes have contributed to produce the existing excitement on the subject of abolition. The principal one, perhaps, is the example of British emancipation of the slaves in the islands adjacent to our country. Such is the similarity in laws, in language, in institutions, and in common origin, between Great Britain and the United States, that no great measure of national policy can be adopted in the one country, without producing a considerable degree of influence in the other.”

The American slave-holders have not always acknowledged this. It has been slowly wrung from them. But, Mr. Clay continues,—

“Confounding the totally different cases together, of the powers of the British Parliament and those of the Congress of the United States, and the totally different situations of the British West India Islands, and the slaves in the sovereign and independent States of this Confederacy, superficial men have inferred from the undecided British experiment the practicability of the abolition of slavery in these

States. The powers of the British Parliament are unlimited, and are often described to be omnipotent. The powers of the American Congress, on the contrary, are few, cautiously limited, scrupulously excluding all that are not granted, and, above all, carefully and absolutely excluding all power over the existence or continuance of slavery in the several States.”

We acknowledge ourselves amazed at such reasoning as this, from such a source. Mr. Clay must know better than to suppose it conclusive, except with the weakest or most ignorant or prejudiced minds. It could serve, in fact, only a popular political purpose. The Abolitionists, as we said before, never contended for a parallel case, literally and strictly, between the British Parliament and the American Congress. They know and avow all that Mr. Clay asserts of the limited powers of the latter,—(though, indeed, they think these powers might be increased in the proper way). But what has this to do with the question of the “practicability of abolition,” which Mr. Clay takes to be thereby settled for ever? Let us assume it proved that Congress has no power. What then? *Have the slave States, as such, no power?* Who has, if not they? This is what the Abolitionists argue. They want the States to act. They want to get majorities in those States to favour abolition; of course, the larger the better, and the sooner the better. This they wish to do by moral means. The theory at least is good. If they go beyond moral means in any case or degree,—if they are intemperate or otherwise inconsiderate, we are sorry for it. But their principles are sound. Their plan is good. There is no essential “impracticability” about it. The “question” is merely whether they can persuade the slave-holders to emancipate. The following remarks of Mr. Clay deserve consideration:—

“The British slaves were not in the bosom of the kingdom, but in remote and feeble colonies having no voice in Parliament. \* \* If, instead of these slaves being separated by a wide ocean from the parent country, three or four millions of African negro slaves had been dispersed over England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, and their owners had been members of the British Parliament,—a case which would have presented some analogy to that of our own country,—does any one believe that it would have been expedient or practicable to have emancipated them, leaving them to remain, with all their embittered feelings, in the United Kingdom, boundless as the powers of the British Parliament are?”

Now, admitting the full force of this, it is no argument against abolition. No matter whether our abolition was easier than it might have been,—no matter though it would be more difficult to the Americans. The justice and reason of the case are not changed. The weight to be given to these considerations is in the way of charitable forbearance and opinion; and for this purpose, they are sufficient. But we must defer Mr. Clay’s further arguments.

*A Hand-book for Travellers in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, &c.; with a Map and Plans.* Murray.

On the appearance of former volumes of this series of aids to the tourist, we expressed our full sense of the value of the information concentrated within them, and of the good taste which has presided over its collection. Our notice of the present Hand-book, however, must, of necessity, be something more diffuse, inasmuch as the routes illustrated in it are less familiar than those described in its predecessors; and there is so much of the “sack” of anecdote and adventure, narrated in a style sprightly without impertinence, together with the “bread” of exact information touching posts, hotels, currencies, and curiosities, that our extracts cannot fail to amuse the general reader, even if he derive no personal instruction from them.

The portal of northern Europe being Hamburg, the present volume naturally begins with a voyage to that free port. One incident of the navigation of the Elbe is new to us:—

“In the mid channel opposite to this town a small vessel of war bearing the flag of Hanover is stationed for the purpose of collecting the toll which all passers on this free river must pay to his Majesty for permission to carry their effects to and fro (8d. per package). The produce of this tax is nominally expended in keeping up the Elbe lights; but though there are several beacons on the Holstein coast, I saw none on the opposite bank, except the light at Cuxhaven, which belongs to Hamburg. During the autumn of 1837, in consequence of an English steamer not complying with sufficient alacrity with the demands of the captain of this mighty man-of-war, a gun (without shot I conclude) was actually fired by the Hanoverian vessel with about as much effect as might have been expected from such a display. On our return in October, we found the crew of our steam boat extremely indignant at the presumption of this pigmy, and certainly had the vessel returned the compliment by running her on board, his Majesty would have had to lament the loss of his entire effective navy sent to the bottom of the Elbe at one fell swoop. The whole affair is neither more or less than an imposition, particularly as by the terms of the treaty of Vienna the navigation of all German rivers is declared to be free, and there is no pretence of any expense having been incurred in erecting a pier or quay, or doing anything for the benefit of the navigation of the river.”

The sights and customs of Hamburg are pleasantly described; among the less familiar groups of figures are the

“Public officers (Reitendiener) who attend at marriages and funerals. They wear Spanish ruffs and black cloaks, with swords and powdered wigs. The first time I saw them, I could hardly persuade myself that they were not a cargo of my legal brethren, who had crossed the North Sea in the same professional array that I had seen them in but a few days previously.”

It is, of course, impossible for us to trace out the several routes diverging from Hamburg, as centre, which are dwelt upon. The first is to Kiel, including two columns of compressed history of the province of Holstein; the second, towards Lubeck, along that most wretched of roads, which, as all northern travellers know, remains a disgrace to His Majesty of Denmark, *ex. gr.*

“Nothing daunted by the dismal accounts we heard of the perils that awaited us, and the numerous accidents that had occurred on the road, particularly by night, we started about eight in the evening in a barouche, and for some little distance beyond the city gates all went so smoothly, that we began to think his Danish majesty a most unjustly labelled sovereign; we were not long, however, in having actual proof, that the shakings which had been foretold were by no means imaginary, or even overrated. Exhausted by travelling for two or three previous nights, we, indeed, fell asleep, but it was only to be rudely aroused by a jolt of unusual force, which fairly flung us against each other, and made us expect that each succeeding shock would give the death-blow to our frail and rickety carriage. The moon shone brightly upon our misery, and enabled us to perceive that we were, at times, traversing a field, rather than a road, of deep loose sand, through which we toiled heavily, but in comparative repose; and then our driver shook every joint in our bodies over the paved road, the stones of which appeared to be heaped up as if to inflict additional and wanton suffering upon such unhappy travellers as might be so ill advised as to choose this road, in preference to going by way of Kiel. \* \* After a delay of about two hours, we again set forth, and the first dawn of day found us toiling our weary way through a wild extensive wood. A glance at the road enabled us fully to account for all the sufferings we had undergone; the stones were of the most unusual dimensions, few smaller than a man’s head, and many very much larger; sometimes rising above the level of the road (if such it could be termed), and again, in other places, leaving a wide interval for the wheel to plunge

into; the only wonder was, that any carriage springs should be found strong enough to weather such a storm."

The next fragment we have to quote, is *apropos* of the sights of Copenhagen:—

"The Sepulchral *Tumuli*, of which such numbers still exist in Denmark, and from the spoil of which the museums of the capital have derived many of their choicest specimens, must ever be objects of the highest interest, both to the antiquarian and the traveller. Two of these tumuli may be seen at Jager-spies, but the one which will best repay the labour of complete inspection, is the sepulchral *tumulus* at Udiere, a few (English) miles from Fredericksund. 'It is enclosed,' says a Danish writer, 'in a very regular, almost globular hillock, the circumference of which, at the foot, may be about 100 paces; there are no circles of stones, nothing on the exterior of the hill to attract particular notice. On the east side of the hill is an opening a little above the level of the ground, formed of four blocks of granite, the uppermost projecting somewhat above the others. The descent to the subterraneous vault is very narrow; the passage from this opening, which is about 4 feet high, about 3 feet wide, and about 4 or 5 yards in length, is formed of hewn granite; the entrance to the tumulus itself is by a square aperture.' 'Difficult, however,' he continues, 'as the access may be, the visitor will find himself amply compensated for the trouble he has been at. By the light of a lantern he will discover 15 large blocks of granite, of which some are 2 yards and upwards in height above the ground, placed in an oval form about 7 yards in length, and 3 in breadth in the middle. Above these blocks, which are closely fixed, there are four of a much larger and more irregular shape forming the ceiling. Every opening caused by the irregular forms of the large stones has been closed up with smaller ones, and the blocks forming the walls have been carefully filled together with wedges of granite or sandstone—many of these wedges cannot be removed without breaking them. The cave, in fact, appears rather to have been cut in the solid rock than a burial chamber formed of several blocks of stone; one of the irregular masses of stone forming the ceiling is above 4 yards in length, and 2 in breadth, the height of the cave varies from 3 to 4 yards. The bottom is covered with yellow sand, in which are imbedded a few flint stones.' Another tumulus, at a short distance, is said to have been the last resting place of King Frode the Good."

But perhaps the most novel route described is that from Göttenburg to Stockholm, by the Gotha Canal,—a five days' journey. Here the editor of the 'Hand-book' has wisely printed the journal of his contributor without retrenchment, and we shall be proportionately liberal in our extracts. The steam-packet, in which the voyage is accomplished, leaves Göttenburg, at an early hour, every Sunday, but the journalist wisely slept on board the night before starting.

"The feeding department we found was managed by contract at the rate of 1 dollar banco (20*d.*) each daily. This included three meals with *finkel à discréption*, but not coffee, wine, or porter. The first day we were rather disposed to be nice (and certainly the eatables were not of the most refined or inviting character); but we very soon were made feelingly sensible of our mistake, as nothing came to replace the plate we had sent away untouched, and we once more ascended to the upper air wiser and nearly as hungry. One dish of frequent recurrence was saltish mutton broth with currant dumplings of exceeding sweetness; another consisted of sour cream—so sour that sugar seemed absolutely to have no effect upon it; together with a very suspicious looking compound somewhat resembling sausage meat; into the mysteries of which we thought it not prudent to inquire very minutely, as the only choice frequently lay between this and nothing; the brown rye bread was generally studded with cumin, aniseed, and carraways, and the *Knacken* bread was as hard as the planks of the deck: the white bread was tolerable, but somewhat scarce. The heat became intense as soon as the fog rolled off; while owing to the difficulty of navigating this narrow canal, we could not have any awning up, and the great height of the banks prevented our feeling any air. It was absolute suffocation. The

foreigners, however, appeared to feel it much more than either of us: in fact, I have observed that foreigners generally appear much more susceptible of either extreme of temperature than Englishmen. In our own changeable climate we frequently undergo great variations of temperature without making any corresponding alterations in the quantity or quality of our clothing, while the natives of the warmer climates of the south seldom venture out in the intense heat of the noon day, and the northerns never face the chilling blasts of winter without encasing themselves in an impervious wrapping of furs and skins. We invariably found that the slightest cold wind was sufficient to clear the after-deck of all but ourselves, and some two or three Swedes of hardier mould than their brethren. And though the close and heated atmosphere of a room impregnated with smoke, is congenial alike to Swedes and Germans, they cannot endure the sultry heat of an unclouded sun. We had some amusing specimens on board, first and foremost of whom was an old Norwegian *rector*, or schoolmaster, certainly as rough as any bear in appearance, with an expression of countenance almost verging on idiocy. Our acquaintance with him had begun the previous day, not under the most favourable auspices. We were just sitting down to dinner at Mrs. Todd's, when this worthy, who was in an adjoining room, thought fit to open our door sundry times in rather an extensive state of dishabille, and give his orders 'loud and frequent' to our attendant. Not particularly liking this, we took the earliest opportunity of turning the key upon him; and upon discovering this infringement of the liberty of the subject, he did certainly contrive to make as decent a disturbance as I ever had the pleasure of hearing. Of course we did not let him out, but the whole household was alarmed, and came rushing to the rescue, and the liberated one made his appearance in our dining-room with his coat and waistcoat under his arm, and, after treating us to a withering scowl, and an interesting specimen of some unknown tongue, retreated, and we saw no more of him until he met me face to face on the deck of the Admiral Von Platen. I bowed to him, and to my utter amazement, having first pulled off his hat and put it under his arm (which we found was his inviolable practice when in conversation) he held out his hand and addressed me in extremely good English."

Thus virtuallied and companioned, our friend steamed merrily along; reaching, about three o'clock in his first day, the great chain of seventy-two locks, by means of which the far-famed falls of Trolhättan are avoided. The passage through the locks enabled our tourist to disembark and survey the catacombs. Some English merchants have seized upon "the water-privilege," and defaced the scene by their mills; but it possesses a grandeur beyond their power utterly to destroy.

"Nearly on a level with the summit of the falls is a curious excavation in the hard solid rock, nearly in the form of a hemisphere, on the sides of which are written in large coarse characters, the names of a great number of Swedish monarchs and mighty men who have come hither to behold the stupendous wonders of Trolhättan. It is at present high above the bed of the Gotha river, nor can one readily understand how the water, by whose agency alone such a gradually curving surface could have been produced, ever ran in this direction, unless this point has formed at some remote period a portion of the channel of the cataract before it hollowed out its present rocky bed."

By about seven the next morning the *Admiral von Platen* (so was the steam-boat called) had reached Wenersborg, where it stopped to take in wood. Shortly after starting again, the vast Wenern Lake, with its perilous maze of islands, was entered; and, towards evening, the West Gotha Canal. The monotony of this thirty-mile tract is beguiled by a sketch on board:—

"The internal economy of our vessel was most remarkable: instead of one large stern cabin for the use of all persons choosing to pay for it, in common, the aft part of the ship was subdivided into some ten or twelve cabins, of various degrees of littleness, for the term size can hardly be applied to such tiny

apartments. There was therefore no place of general rendezvous for any purpose; the fore-cabin was converted into a general eating-room, with a kitchen adjoining; and into this we dived down a perpendicular staircase three times a day, occasionally slipping, and making our *entre* heels foremost. The compound of odours which issued up this said staircase would infallibly have spoiled any delicate appetite; but with us, strange as it may sound, before the five days of our imprisonment were over, this odd kind of living became quite habitual, and our sundry attempts to speak Swedish to *Marie* afforded as much amusement to us as to the Swedes, who laughed at our efforts. This beautiful eating-room was at night filled with hammocks, slung side by side, for such as could not find places in the after cabins; while those who were not fortunate enough to find a place in either were compelled to dispose of their persons on deck, where they lay all in a heap, endeavouring to make the most of what little warmth still remained in the engine fires, and covered from the night dew by a thick canvas spread between the paddle boxes. Nothing could be more absurd than the spectacle exhibited by these two well-packed dormitories. We made a descent one night about ten, and found the whole company busy in preparing for their somewhat adventurous ascent to bed. The hammocks touching each other, and occupying the whole room, while the seats against each side of the vessel were so arranged as to carry double, that is, with a tenant at each end, the entire length not being above eight feet at the utmost; we were witnesses of a most amusing wordy quarrel between a brace of Swedes, the gravamen being that one insisted on sleeping in his boots—a proceeding to which his bed-fellow very naturally objected. Leaving these worthies to settle their grievances as best they could, we increased their already somewhat numerous company by introducing a very fine cat that had followed us in our wanderings on shore, and having shut the doors both below and on deck, proceeded to view our remaining brethren in misfortune, who formed literally a heap of humanity, being stowed in some places two or three deep. A long-legged Belgian had curled himself up on one of the engine boxes, monopolising as much of the warmth as he conveniently could, when a Swede, half asleep, finding his body a softer resting place than the hard boards, quietly converted him into a temporary pillow: we were just in time to see and hear the first outbreak of the storm which ensued; of course the Belgian spoke only French, which not a soul present understood except ourselves; but it was equally effectual in dislodging the intruder and awakening the whole slumbering colony, who gazed with lack-lustre eyes upon the strange scene; and after sundry uneasy turnings of this living mass, all was again quiet, and we returned to our cabin. This Belgian was, as we afterwards learned, head cook to the Belgian minister at Stockholm, whether he was journeying to enter upon his duties. It may therefore fairly be inferred that what were mere trifles to us in the way of coarse fare, were absolute sufferings to his experienced and scientific palate. One day, seeing him with evident distaste, slowly progressing through a large plateful of our standard fare, namely, salt mutton broth with very sweet currant dumplings, the whole being slightly flavoured with garlic, I asked him whether his soup was good. For a moment his emotions were too powerful to allow the poor *artiste* utterance; but I shall never forget the *venom* of his expression as he replied, 'Monsieur! la cuisine est folle.'"

It was about noon on the Tuesday that the Western Lake was entered,—the steamer passing under the walls of the Wänas, the largest and strongest fortress in the kingdom. On this great sheet of water, the voyage was more energetically than agreeably diversified, by rough weather, mountainous waves, and their consequences to the hapless passengers. From this point the route lies through the lakes of Boren, Roxen, Glan, and a segment of the stormy Baltic:—

"Not indeed that any change in the scenery around would have led us to suppose that we were again in the great, salt sea: we were still hemmed in on all sides by islands wild and rugged as those we had left in the Wenern lake, while our

channel was often as narrow and perilous as in the canal. We had one passage of peculiar difficulty, which displayed most beautifully the skill and accuracy of our steersman. On a detached rock stood the remnant of a lofty and massive tower of former times, connected with the mainland by a stone bridge, many of whose arches were still visible under water, approaching far too near the surface to admit our crossing it with safety, except in one single point, where an arch had been thrown down for the purpose of making a channel. The slightest deviation must have been fatal to us; but we passed the perilous strait in safety, our helmsman looking as calm and unconcerned as if we were upon the deep waters of the Wettern. Island after island seemed to hem us in interminably, with now and then a castle in ruins, until our captain, being somewhat apprehensive of the weather, determined to bring up for the night in a sheltered bay, on the border of which lay the chalets and grounds of the Swedish Countess Curraholm, a pretty country house with a large well-cultivated garden."

In the course of Thursday the party reached Stockholm, the expenses of this five days' voyage being "somewhat under 4*l.* English, doing everything liberally."

Another route—that from Abo to St. Petersburg—is no less graphically put on paper. This was done in a kind of caleche, and occupied about five days and one night spent on the road. The journey is rough, amusing, and unexpensive.

"The paying system is capital, not only for its economy, but for its simplicity, and the impossibility of any traveller being imposed upon. The charge per horse is about *1d.* English per mile, including what you give the boy who takes your horses back, who, unless he had been kept waiting, would be alarmed at the present of *1d.* for a stage of twelve or fourteen miles. As soon as you arrive at a station, you call out lustily for horses, in Swedish, (håstar) adding as many words of the same language signifying 'make haste,' as your vocabulary can supply. We had three: *straxt, snart, and schoona*, all meaning the same thing, and found them of the greatest possible utility. You then march into the post-house and ask for the book (bok), in which every traveller must write his name, the number of horses he wants, whence he comes, whither he is going, and what, if any, complaints he has to make. All the columns are headed with the requisite explanations in Russian, Swedish, and German, and on the first page is the name of the station itself, together with its distance from the one you last left, and the one to which you are going, and the sum to be paid for each horse. Nothing can be more convenient than this regulation. The supply of horses too is most abundant: on hardly a single occasion were we compelled to wait, though we frequently had several noisy competitors for the honour of their cattle being driven by us. Travellers have the right to reject any horse that does not find favour in their eyes,—a privilege we did not feel called upon to avail ourselves of."

The "passages" of the day, after leaving Helsingfors, afford the traveller a fair specimen of the adventures he is to expect.

"We now determined to trust ourselves to the skill of our new postillion, and certainly a more proper young imp I never beheld: about twelve years at the outside, and but a *shrimp* in size, without shoes or stockings, there was a fierceness in the wild flashing of that urchin's eyes that was quite startling, and his whole procedure was in accordance with his looks. He jerked the reins till the horses reared bolt upright, and then with a yell like a fiend, he started them off full gallop over the rough pavement to Henriksdals, taking us about fifteen versts in an hour and a quarter. The night had closed upon us before we reached Borgo, where we merely stopped to change horses, being anxious to get on as far as possible this evening, as we were fully resolved that this should be the last night's *rest*, or rather *unrest*, we would take until we reached the Russian capital. About eleven the rain had ceased, having previously made its way through every part of the covering of our frail carriage, and we determined to stay for the remainder of the night at the post-house at Ilby, which we reached shortly before midnight. All was still as

death, but by dint of a little noise we aroused the sleepers, who came out from all directions, making a whirring noise, with which they stop their horses, more resembling the noise of a pheasant rising in a thick cover than anything else to which I can compare it. The door of the dwelling-house at length opened, and out came a good-humoured looking *Fin*, without shoes or stockings, evidently just awoken. I gave him to understand that we wished to stay till morning, to which he replied that we were welcome; and having put our carriage partially under cover he led the way into his house. Here we found the bed he himself had just quitted, together with two others, the tenants of which made their escape on our appearance, before we had time to speculate either on their age, sex, or character. Our new host set to work most vigorously, carrying away the bedding, and speedily producing new, so that we were soon installed in the nests of these worthy *Fins*; the man looking as contented and good-humoured as if nothing unusual had occurred; in fact, they are the most imperturbable people I ever beheld: young and old seem alike, schooled to the same unchanging indifference. How they bear the intense cold of their arctic winter I know not, nor have I the least desire for any personal experience upon the point; but the storms of rain that we encountered, they one and all treated with the utmost contempt, often starting to take the horses back in the midst of them. Their usual dress was nothing more than a short blue frock, of coarse linen, with trowsers of the same; if we gave them a mackintosh they grinned and put it on, but they seemed just as comfortable without any such protection. With the exception of one old man, who had a good warm cloak, and who seemed quite above the ordinary kind of men we had to deal with, I never saw any of them put on any extra clothing when about to face the wind and weather."

We can indulge no further in extract; contenting ourselves with adding, that the cities of St. Petersburg and Moscow, with all their sights and their costs, are expatiated upon in a style no less pleasant. With regard to one or two other routes in Russia, where astring of names, merely, is given—probably from hearsay—we think that the editor might have enriched his 'Hand-book' by borrowing a few pages from Mr. Stephens's second series of 'Incidents of Travel.'

*Central Society of Education.* Third Publication. Taylor & Walton.

*The Educator; Prize Essays on the Expediency and Means of Elevating the Profession of the Educator in Society.* Taylor & Walton. *Mrs. Austin on National Education.* Murray.

WHEN the first publication of the Central Society of Education appeared, we stated our fears that the Society had started on wrong path, and that it was adopting a course more likely to provoke hostility than win favour. Events have unfortunately justified our prediction. Although the Society disclaims responsibility for the facts and opinions contained in its publications, the public does and will hold the Society responsible for the different systems advocated by the several writers; it regards the *imprimatur* as a tacit sanction, and when offended by the opinion of an individual, cast the greater part of the blame on those by whose aid the opinion obtained publicity.

In strategy, it is considered a great error to occupy a line needlessly extensive, or undertake the defence of more positions than is urgently required: but the Central Society has gone beyond this; with its very limited forces it has undertaken not only defence, but attack; every portion and form of education, from the lowest village school up to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, have been simultaneously assailed; the same volume contained rules for the instruction of infants and directions for the acquisition of Greek and Sanscrit, until at length a general impression was produced that the Society aimed at the destruction of all existing establishments; and, of course, all connected

with those establishments arrayed themselves for war.

Without adopting the sarcasm of the French journalist, who declared that "Nothing so forcibly demonstrated the want of a system of National Education in England as the recent debates on the propriety of its adoption," we may be allowed to lament that the violence of party has seized on a subject, with which party has no legitimate connexion; and that, in all the discussions that have taken place, no notice has been taken of the parties most deeply interested, the parent and the child. Days and nights have been spent in debating the nature and amount of religious instruction which the state is bound to furnish; as if a power superior to the state had not placed the religious education of the child in the hands of the parent, and of him alone. Orators speak as if parental responsibility, the first element of social life, was so light and trivial a thing, that in a question of the child's happiness here and hereafter the father or the mother is not entitled to a voice: whereas the interference of the state is not in the stead, but in the aid of the parent; if he deems special religious instruction necessary for his children, let him have it by all means, but if he believes the instruction offered unnecessary or pernicious, we deny the right of the state to force his conscience, whether by bribe or threat. Every system of National Education is, and must be considered as, a portion of the system of police, fully as much designed for the protection of person and property as a constabulary force; the use of the national school is to get rid of the national prison; the schoolmaster is to be paid, because it is believed that on the whole he will be found less expensive than the thief-taker or the hangman.

The third volume of the Society's Transactions now before us, contains three appropriate and valuable papers: an account of American Schools by Mr. Wood—a Statistical Survey of five parishes in Norfolk, by Mr. Porter—and an examination of the present state of Prussian Education, by Mr. Wyse. But, in the name of common sense, what purpose can be served by the publication of Mr. Smith's Essay on Comparative Grammar, with all its accompaniments of Sclovonic, Sanscrit, Greek, Gothic, &c.? In the article on the State of the Peasantry in Kent, why do we find insinuations against the efficiency of the Established Church dealt out with no sparing hand? And what good can result from opening the question of the advantages of Classical Education, under the auspices of Mr. Long? We have stated our doubts in the form of questions; it is for the Central Society to solve them, as best they may.

'The Educator' is a collection of prize essays, and two of the number, that of Mr. Lalor, who got the first prize, and that of Mrs. Porter, contain many valuable, because available, hints on the means of raising the character of teachers. But here again we must protest against this system of offering prizes for essays, which, within the last three years has become a positive nuisance. In general, the proposer of the essay hits upon an evil that does nobody any harm, and the successful candidate proposes a remedy that does nobody any good. This is realizing the satire on the Gregorian Reformation of the Calendar with a vengeance.

Mrs. Austin's work is a reprint of an article, contributed to Cochrane's Foreign Quarterly. Like all the writings of that lady, it is marked by stedfast adherence to the main point in issue, and an unimpassioned examination of the arguments. We believe, with her, that the mechanism is the great thing wanting in this country, and that the disputes about principle are mere dust thrown in our eyes; but, at the same time, we feel that there are moments in which pro-

tracting discussion may be injurious to truth—that to delay, and to afford opportunity for prejudiced bigotry to burn out with its own intensity, is often more prudent policy than to fan the flame. Enthusiasts are but children of a larger growth; when they have rattled their alarms until they have stunned themselves as they have already stunned others, they will throw them away, and Reason will have a chance of being heard.

## ANTHOLOGY FOR 1839.

THIS age of ours will most assuredly be regarded by our descendants as one of daring speculation and experiment; in it the old landmarks of the mind have been either removed, or only left as tacit witnesses of the onward march of Intellect. In no way, however, has the power of invention been exercised more advantageously than in extracting new uses from things which had hitherto been deemed unserviceable, and inapplicable to the wants of mankind. Thus, we have seen the barren fir of Norway converted, from necessity perhaps, into a veritable bread-fruit tree, by the substitution of fibre for farina, while the wheaten loaf itself has been compelled by the same potent minister, to surrender its long unsuspected spirit in the visible shape of alcohol. It would appear, however, that this laudable ambition is not confined to those who make tangible matter the only object of their investigations. The poet, too, has turned alchemist, and laboured, not unsuccessfully, to prove, that from the dull and unpromising things of every-day life, we can extract the subtle spirit of beauty, which, although invisible, is omnipresent, though it answers not to any spell save that of genius and inspiration. Had we been asked what was the most unlikely field for the exercise of this power, we should, in all probability, have instanced the Law as one of those austere and barren tracts whose soil was wholly unsuited for the growth of the blossoms of poetry. But your true poet is all-powerful, and, like the old enchanters, can raise up gardens in the desert, and people the wilderness with beauties of his own creation. We have been led into these remarks by the perusal of a volume which is well entitled to occupy the post of honour in our poetic catalogue, viz. *State Trials—Specimens of a New Edition*, by N. T. Moile: a hazardous attempt, but one justified by the success which has attended it. The author's reasons for trenching upon this new ground are ingeniously stated in the preface:—

"The strong analogy of criminal trials to tragedy has been ingeniously remarked by my learned friend and competitor, Mr. Jardine: and the resemblance of many *nisi prius* cases to comedy can have hardly escaped the most superficial observer; and something of it is curiously preserved by the Reports, for the benefit of posterity. The action of replevin, indeed, has already engaged the labours of both painters and dramatists: under the name of 'The Rent Day,' it has drawn tears from thousands at our national theatre; and the pencil of a Wilkie has proved that a common-law or statutable distress may become of all others the most pathetic. But though, in both those works, the declaration and avowry are admirably delineated, there can be no doubt that the whole of the pleas in bar would be bad on a general demur. Succeeding artists may avoid this fault:—and the design give rise to an emulation no less noble than that of Timanthes and Parrhasius to delineate the trial of the controversy for the arms of Achilles. If the kindred art of painting succeeds so well in judicial subjects, can they prove less congenial to poetry? Undoubtedly the statutes at large keep in reserve an inexhaustible and golden vein, the working of which prosaically has already attracted the attention of the Common Law Commissioners; a vein, which waits only till the peculiar vocation of the present age for legislation shall have called forth a lawyer, whose intellect may bear the same affinity for verse, as the father of jurisprudence among the Greeks bore to the father of their poetry. The common law offers still more fertile resources. What fictions of heathen mythology are more imaginative than contingent remainders, executory devises, and springing uses? What is wanting but that delicate taste and fervid genius, which in Greece could express all earthly

virtues, and all divine powers, by beautiful modifications of the human form,—to give body to a freehold in abeyance, and make the three certainties vie with the three graces in elegance and celebrity? In pleading—the field is equally promising to either art. A special demur to a negative pregnant would differ but little from the detection and exposure of Calisto, as pictured by Dominichino on the walls of the Farnese palace. But the most worthy subject of celebration would, perhaps, be the revival of the science itself under the new Rules of Pleading:—replication, rejoinder, rebutter, and surrebuter raising their heads again from under the all-whelming general issue, by which they had been nearly extinguished,—and advancing like Titans, led on by a demurral declaration, driving the business of the country before them into the courts of equity:—to the entire reform and perfecting of the common law."

The three trials which our author has clothed anew in the attractive garb of poetry, are those of Anne Ayliffe, for Heresy, Sir William Stanley, for Treason, and Mary of Scotland. The first is decidedly our favourite, as appealing more strongly to the feelings, and enlisting all our sympathies on the side of the poor victim whose tale it professes to tell: and Mr. Moile has brought to the task a flow of language, and a facility of versification, which carries the reader irresistibly along with him, and forbids the attention to flag through the whole of a story, whose length would otherwise have been a serious drawback from its interest. By turns impassioned, tender, and sarcastic, he touches every chord of human feeling:—the reader is under the power of a spell, and becomes as it were an actor in the scene, and almost a sharer in the sufferings which it describes. In fact, so easy and unfettered is our author's style, that it rather resembles a brilliant improvisation than a studied and elaborate work in which the head and heart have been consulted as well as the ear, a fact which suffices to account for sundry imperfections, which savour more of carelessness than want of skill.

The poem opens with the celebration of mass in St. Paul's, previous to the final examination of the accused before her appointed judges. The following description of the procession is an instance of that poetic painting which resembles the creations of the pencil itself:—

Through the north porch the faithful folk were sent; With whispered prayer or greeting forth they went, The poor to labours and the rich to cares: The brethren towards the south moved out to theirs. Paired in long order, vergers first, they past, Monks—canons—next the deans—the prelates last, London's and Lincoln's high with mitres crowned, And Benedict of Bangor, sleeve'd and gowned, Each with his crozier, each in scarlet pall: Stern Arundel, their sovereign, following all,— Prop'd on a staff, with pomp of cross and mace, Pole-axe and pillar, bore before his face, Of hoary locks, but eye that darted fire, From beetling brows, beneath his fork'd tire, In purple robe, with rochet and a cope,— Lord Primate of the realm, Lord Legate of the Pope.

The torture has been already tried, but found useless. The effect of blandishment remains to be proved. The two alternatives which are left her are very beautifully contrasted in the subjoined passage:—

In Netley Abbey,—on the neighbouring isle The woods of Binstead shade as fair a pile;— (Where sloping meadows fringe the shores with green, A river of the ocean rolls between, Whose murmurs, borne on sunny winds, disport Through oriel windows, and a cloistered court; O'er hills so fair, o'er terraces so sweet, The sea comes twice each day to kiss their feet:— Where sounding waves mine the garden bowers, Where groves intone, where many an *hex* towers, And make a fragrant breath exhales from fruit and flowers:— And lowing herds and feathered warblers there Make mystic concords with reposal and prayer; Mixed with the hum of apiaries near, The mill's far catnarr, and the sea boys' cheer, Whose oars beat time to Titianes at noon, Or hymns at complies by the rising moon; When, after chimes, each chapel echo round, Like one aerial instrument of sound, Some vast harmonious fabric of the Lord's, Whose vaults are shells, and pillars tuneful chords, Echoes with song far circling hills and bays, And heavenward wafting their consent and praise:— In either house a corody is mine:— Submit to Holy Church, her Scriptures sign, And name in which retreat you choose to live, And learn what blessing life has yet to give.

"Hard-hearted, canst thou doubt? Bethink thee well! I offer life and heaven—or death and hell. Ah, how perverse is sin! and how unwise! Well, speak thy choice! The book before thee lies;

Subscribe it, and be blessed for evermore! Refuse,—the feet of those are at the door, Who bore thy father, and shall thence return, And bear thee also to the stake, and burn; With boughs in Holborn yet uncut from tree, Whose sap is flowing, and whose leaves are green; Burn, and ere evening break thy bones calcined On Calisto flags, and scatter to the wind. Come, choose the path thou never may'st retrac. Dost hear? Wilt answer?"

"Yes.—Without the rack. Nor had you twice asked answer to the choice, But what was said of father choked my voice. From whom since summer's dawn have I been riven, And never heard—till news this moment given. I thirst!—I faint!—For charity, some water!"

The passage which represents her in her delirium as imagining that she is still stretched upon the rack, and giving vent to incoherent expressions of anguish and womanly fear, is natural and highly wrought:—

Anne Ayliffe, rise! Lift up the wretched girl.

"Unwind! Two crescents, and a cross of pearl!"

"Dreams she, or raves,—or is the audience mocked?"

"Baptized?—In childhood! Manuscripts are locked In secret shelves behind the study's post—

"Unwind me!—or I must give up the ghost.

"Chirurgeon, look!—You do not mean to kill!

"Unwind! I do believe.—I did.—I will.

"Out! slanderer,—monster!—Why are questions prest,

No maid should hear, no parent could suggest?"

"Please your Grace, give," said Anselm, 'short repose. These wandering freaks are wonted soon to close. Here—let her lean against the pillar's base."

"For what?—What is it?—Over my brows to lace?"

"No;—rend me,—crush me! Any death but that! You brazen bonnet holds a starveling rat.

Its claws, its teeth, already pierce my skull!

Dear Anselm!—Baptist! God! be merciful!"

Here, too, is her last and fond farewell to those shapes of this world's loveliness which had been companions of her happy childhood; it would scarcely suffer by comparison with those sad and swan-like dirges which lend such a light of mournful beauty to the character of Antigone:—

Is life to come like life before our birth?

I prize but this; I earthly love the earth.

Oh! murmuring streams, green valleys, sylvan bowers, Ye starry nights, ye golden-footed hours,

Spring's roseate bourn, sweet summer's evening hue,

Still autumn's noon,—my sisters,—all adieu!

Your sun-clad forms shall ever beam in youth,

As love's time's hand, nor care's corroding tooth.

And Earth! whose bosom was my place to dwell,

Whom milk my nurse,—hall, mother, and farewell!

Goddess, o'er thee no evil arm had power;

Lo, rifted rocks with lichens germ and mace!

Fire, frost, and flood reanimate thy face;

Earth dissolution teems with life and grace.

But woe thy offering! woe, when flesh is grass!

Organic forms they all dissolve and pass,

As fades the plant, so withers man and beast.

All die alike, they look alike deceased,

O'er all alike the worm usurps its range,

And gilded flies attest the irretrievable change.

We have already indulged largely in quotations—but must, nevertheless, try and find space for one more. The priest who accompanied her to the place of execution, and witnessed the closing scene of her suffering, when he preached at Paul's Cross in the evening, related the following portent, which was doubtless intended to convey a suitable moral to the crowd:—

Then, in denser volumes rolled the smoke, And o'er the summit, where they curved and broke, A snow-white creature, near the turtle's size, Soared out, and whirled exulting up the skies. Pale doubt, with face turned after, hushed the throng; Doubt, pale—lest innocence had suffered wrong, But brief. For lo! against her from the north, Winged with the wind, a Hawk came salving forth. A monster, owl-eyed, like a bat in flight, With eagle's beak, and plumage dark at night. On, snuffing prey, with arrovy speed, he streaked. The Turtle saw, and heavenward climbing, screamed. The Fiend towers higher; and again the Dove, Redoubling efforts, holds the vault above. The Hawk o'ertook her next: now both are even: And now the Dove mounts upmost to Heaven. When, far beyond her, and beyond our sight, The Falcon, scorning contest, pitched his flight; And, at the zenith, stooping from a cloud, Plumb as a rock, soun'd on her—shrieking loud, With savage talons smote, and grasped, the prey, And towering bore it to the north away. The north intoned—a dull, deep, distant sound. White feathers wide in air were scattered round: And, ere they reached, and stained with crimson drops, the ground.

A storm-cloud wrapt him; noiseless lightning fell, As driven to pierce the earth, and penetrate to hell. A dull, deep, distant echo died, in wailing, and a yell.

The trial of Sir William Stanley is remarkable for the same energy of thought and language, which gush out as if the poet, like the Pythian of old, were

merely the involuntary agent of an all-powerful inspiration within. That of Mary Queen of Scots paints the unfortunate sufferer to the life. Her words are very arrows dipped in gall, and her defense, thanks to the gallantry of Mr. Moile, perfectly satisfactory to those who only wish to look upon her in a poetical point of view.

It is but a step from the forum to the theatre; and here we have a trilogy of tragedies soliciting our good word—viz. *Marianne*, *The Siege of Vienne*, and the *Piromides*,—which, however, we shall deliver over to the tender mercies of Mr. Stephens, who, in his preface to a similar assault on the Muses, entitled *Gertrude and Beatrice*, thus censoriously discourses of modern dramatists. “He (Stephens) is, moreover, so imbued with, and has such a thorough relish of, the immortal works of Milton, Jonson, Ford, Massinger, not to instance him—

Above the rest,  
Proudly pre-eminent,

whose name he (Stephens) will not, in this slight preface, take in vain, that he can with difficulty find much to admire in most subsequent productions of the dramatic muse.” If every author who asserts an abstract truth were as careful as Mr. Stephens to bring an individual illustration, there would be an end of argument.

*Hannibal in Bithynia* must, however, be allowed to stand as one of the exceptions to this sweeping criticism. There is an approach to vitality in it, which contrasts favourably with the morbid monstrosities of too many of its brethren. The character of the old Carthaginian is ably developed, having, of course, as its most prominent feature, that honest hatred towards whatever bore the name of Roman, which ought to have marked him out as an object of especial admiration to our great lexicographer. One scene between him and Zeno we must find room for:—

Zeno. Great Hannibal!  
Hannibal. What wouldst thou now,  
Philosopher!

Zeno. As thou art soon to take  
The chief command of our Bithynian force,  
It may be worth thy while to hear from me  
A word or two on military tactics.

Perdiccas. Teach Hannibal the art of war? Good Zeno,  
Thou hast outlived thy wits.

Hannibal. Let him alone.  
He's a most learned man.

Zeno. I'll ask thee first,  
How wouldst thou form the phalanx? answer me!

Hannibal. Why thus and thus.  
[Makes marks on the ground with his sword.

Zeno. That's wrong; palpably wrong!  
That way Darius lost Arbela's day!  
Observe me now! his adversary, thus,  
Great Alexander, did his phalanx form;  
Strengthened his centre, careless of his wings,  
Drew up his legions thus, and led them on  
To certain triumph.

Hannibal. Teach me something more!  
Zeno. I'll teach thee what to shun—what'er thy case,  
Shun stratagems—attempt not stratagems—  
In war they never prosper.

Perdiccas. It had been  
Better, perhaps, for Rome, if Hannibal  
Had heard thee, Zeno, lecture, years ago.

Hannibal. Oh! but philosophy is in the right.  
I will offend no more—but say'st thou nothing  
Of the best manner to subdue my troops?  
Cleon and Pamphilus will think thee wanting  
Shouldst thou omit the noblest theme of all.  
Shall they be fed on brains of nightingales?

Zeno. Such food as can be got—but, mark me well—  
Be not in haste—nor hurry the recruits.  
Wait for the reinforcements—take thy time—  
Then, when thy numbers reach the full amount,  
Place them thus, and lead them to the charge,  
Into the thickest of the battle plunge,  
Strike to the left and right.

Hannibal. Brave, brave! good Zeno!  
Thou art the wisest of philosophers.  
And first of geniuses. But we must hence  
To put these noble theories in practice.

The catastrophe is, of course, in accordance with the best authenticated traditions—Rome bullies, the hospitable king retracts his promise of protection, and Hannibal takes *Prusac* acid, in preference to being delivered into the hands of his enemies.

*The Reign of Lochrin*, *Soldanella*, *The Fall of Warsaw*, and *Jubal*, must be content to group together as a *partie carree*. We will not assert that they belong to that debatable land of poetry whose inhabitants are hateful both to gods and men—there are sufficient evidences of a good intention in all, to disarm the wrath of criticism, but scarcely enough of fulfilment to justify commendation. Of the four, ‘Jubal’ is decidedly the best; and as the author is a lady, we shall permit her to speak for all:—

Zaida was the only child  
Of the Arab fierce and wild.  
She was beautiful and bright,  
As a spirit formed of light;  
Slender was her form, and fair,  
As the Eastern Genii are;  
Darker than the thunder-cloud,  
Unconfined her tresses flowed  
O'er a brow, whose clear dark hue  
Showed her veins' transparent blue;  
Eyes whose brightness seemed as caught

From the beams of her own sun;  
Every glance with feeling fraught,  
As radiantly they shone;  
Lip of rose, and teeth of pearl—  
Such the lovely Arab girl.

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Worshipped by the rugged band,  
Neath her father's fierce command;  
In her look, her air, her mien,  
All, except in name, a queen;  
The proud glance of her dark eye  
Told at once unquestioned sway;  
One who ne'er had met reply,  
Save—“To her, is to obey.”

And untutored to repress  
Her young feelings' warm excess,  
Every thought in her pure breast  
Was as readily expressed;  
And in her simplicity  
From dissimulation free,  
All who saw that face so fair,  
Saw the soul was written there.

*A Tour in Connaught.* By C. O., author of  
‘Sketches in Ireland.’ Dublin: Curry & Co.

It was the opinion of some ancient philosophers that every man has two souls, and that the many inconsistencies of humanity were owing to their opposition. Although the theory may not be applicable to all mankind, it appears to hold good so far as the author of this tour in Connaught is concerned, for his work seems to have emanated from two minds not only different but hostile, whose co-existence is a moral phenomenon that would perplex metaphysicians. The first and most natural mind is poetic in its temperament, full of sympathy with nature and mankind, fond of traditional lore, both for what it preserves of the past and illustrates of the present,—having a keen perception of humour, as the stamp and impress of character. The second mind is moulded in the form of the surest puritanism, vowed to an eternal hate, not only of popery, but of everything that can be moulded into its semblance; so eager in attack as not to be always scrupulous in the choice of weapons; and this second mind has in many places blinded the moral sense of the first, and rendered it incapable of perceiving that the author records his own condemnation, and gives evidence of the worthlessness of his own testimony. While we lament the intolerance with which this volume is so deeply tinged,

—an intolerance by the way that seems “to protest too much,” as if it were suspicious of itself, or assumed to disarm the suspicions of others,—we are far from withholding our approbation from those portions of the book written under the influence of the better spirit. C. O. has deeply studied the history, the antiquities, and the traditional lore of Ireland; he travelled through a part of the country abounding in striking features, romantic scenery, and memorials of the past, to each of which its appropriate legend is attached—a part rarely visited by tourists, and which has nearly all the interest of an untouched country. Observing as little of formal arrangement as the author, we shall select some of the most striking legends and descriptions, chiefly those that best illustrate the character of the natives of the country.

At Tyrrell's house, a remarkable spot near the Boyne, our author collected some particulars respecting the youth of the Duke of Wellington:—

“The Boyne flows lazily here amidst sedge and reeds—appearing but the dark drain of an immense morass—the discharge of the waste waters of the Bog of Allen. A strong position in time of war—Lord Wellington knows it well—he has often had his

soldier eye upon it, his paternal mansion, Dangan, being not far off to the right, near Trim. How different was the young fun-loving, comical, quizzing, gallanting Captain Arthur Wellesley, when residing in his shooting-lodge between Summerhill and Dangan, from the stern, cautious, careworn Fabius of the Peninsular war; the trifling, provoking, capricious sprig of nobility—half-dreaded, half-loathe on by the women, hated by the men—the dry joker, the practical wit, the ne'er do well—despised of, as good for nothing, by his own family, from the redoubtable warrior of Waterloo—the great prime minister of England—like Julius Caesar, a roué converted into a hero.”

The following legend is founded on the circumstance of a rat being sculptured on a statue at Athlone:—

“Peter Lewis is said to have been an English monk who turned Protestant, and coming over to Ireland was made a dignitary of Christ Church; being a man of great scientific and mechanical knowledge, Sir Henry Sidney sent him to superintend the erection of this important bridge; but being a turncoat, a righteous rat, vexed with such tergiversation, followed and haunted him—by day and night, at bed and board—or horseback or in boat, the disgusting vermin pursued him, slept on his pillow, and dabbled its tail or whisker in all he eat or drank—the church itself could not save him from the persecution. One day in the church of St. Mary's, Athlone, he ventured to preach, and lo, this unclean beast kept peering at him with its bitter, taunting eye, all the time he was holding forth; and when he descended from the pulpit, after having dismissed the congregation, the cursed creature still remained mocking his reverence. This was too much—Master Lewis presented a pistol, which he had always about him, to shoot it—the sagacious and unaccountable animal, to avert the shot, leapt up on the pistol, as represented on the monument, and seizing the parson's thumb, inflicted such a wound as to bring on a locked jaw, which terminated in his death.”

Colman declares that wherever his hero went—  
He foard the rat might be desir'd,  
And all his fears were rat-ified.

In the great cemetery at Clonmacnoise, C. O. witnessed an incident similar to that of which Mrs. Shelley has made use in the opening scene of ‘Falkner’:—

“One little boy, rather decently clad, seemed wandering about from tombstone to tombstone, reading their various legends, and at length I observed him accost a beggar-woman by the familiar name of Judy, and ask where was his mother's grave. ‘Oh then it's I will tell you, alanna—and more than that would I do for your mammy's son, for didn't I folly along with, all the neighbours her berrin when you were not larger than my milk-pitcher, and its little she thought that your daddy would have put so soon step-mother over her sweet charge; come, jewel, and I will put your two knees down upon the very spot where the bones rest of her who bore you.’”

This incident for a moment overcame C. O.'s sectarian spirit, and he forgave the superstitious prayers, in admiration of filial simplicity and affection.

Cong, in the county Mayo, is a celebrated place of pilgrimage; its natural formation is singular, and it is described by our author with great fidelity. But the Abbey of Cong is scarcely less famous for its tombs of saints and kings than for the grave of Macnamara, the Irish Dick Turpin. The exploits of this man and his mare Moreen would not suffer on comparison with those of Turpin and Black Bess, and in these days of highwaymen heroes, we deem it fair to let C. O.'s guide, “little Padsey,” state his claims for self and hero, in opposition to Mr. Ainsworth.

“Well now, Padsey, tell me all about this Macnamara.”

“Why, sir, he was a terrible man—I believe he was from the county Clare—but any how he kept in those parts, for the sake of the caves, and it's very near the mountains, where he could run to when things came to the worst with him; and he robbed the world from Munster up to Sligo; and after all it

was not himself that was great, but his mare—for she was the jewel of a crathur—he'd rob a man in the county of Clare, and Moreen, the mare, would carry him off in such a jiffey that he'd be here in no time. He saved his life in that way. They swore he robbed a man near Limerick; he swore and proved it too, that he slept that night in Cong; the judge said it was impossible he could so shortly be in two places—barring he was a bird—it was certainly true for him, only that it was Moreen that carried him through. Oh, sir, sure Moreen could leap anywhere—she leaped up with Macnamara on her back, into a drawing-room window, where a company of Galway squires were carousing, and he robbed them all, and then he bounced out again. But the same Moreen did more than ever she did, one day in Joyce country. Macnamara made the snug farmers amongst the mountains pay him what he called his black rent; and once on a time when he was hunted out of all the flat country and the sodgers were after him from Tuam and Castlebar, and Ballinrobe, and he was here amongst the caves and rocks; so he bethought him of gathering his rent in Joyce country, and off he set to the foot of Mamtire mountain, and he was mighty cross all out, and not a thing would he have but the cash, no meal or malt would do him, and gold he must have that was scarce; so one said, and another said, is it not a queer thing that all of us should be paying to this rapsaree rascallion—(not a people in the wide world fonder of money than these Joyces)—and he, after all, but one little man, not so big as any one of ourselves; so they all rose, and they shouted, and they ran at him, and one man had his scythe, and the other his loy, and the other his stone, and they were going to murder him, and they had him hemmed in; on one side was Lough Corrib, and on the other was a high rock, and a big Joyce was lifting his loy to split his skull, when Macnamara gave a chirp to Moreen, and up she sprung, thirty feet in height was the rock, she made no more of it than she would of skipping over a potato trench; she brought him out of their reach in a threec, and him she carried to Cong, as safe as you are, master, and safer; the marks of where she landed up on the rock are there yet—the people will shew it you, if you go that way, not a word of lie in it; but may be, your honour, I have tired you about Mac and Moreen.'

"Oh, no, Padsey, have you anything more to say?"

"Ooh, then, that I have; sure he once sold his mare, for he was a great card-player, and so it was he lost all he could rap or run; the devil's child, that he was, he staked and lost poor Moreen, and if you were to see him next day when the man came to carry her away, it would make your heart sick;—so, says he to her owner, sir, would you be pleased just for to give me one ride of her before she goes, I'll be bound I'll show you what's in her. So sir, do you see yonder piers?—and here Paddy pointed to an ancient gateway where there were the remains of very lofty piers.—'Sir, the gate was up at this time higher far than a man would reach—so Mac mounted, and dashed Moreen at the gate, and sure enough she topped it in style; but if she did, whether it was that the knowing crathur had a thought in her that her master was going to give her up or not—any how myself cannot tell, but when she came to the ground she fell down as dead and never rose again. Poor Moreen's heart was broke! and poor Macnamara did not long survive her; he ordered himself to be buried along with her, in that snug corner, and there they are, and never was the likes of man and mare from that day to this."

A legend of a different nature belongs to Croagh Patrick, so famous in song.—

Twas on the top of this high hill  
St. Patrick preach'd a sarnain,  
Which drove the frogs into the bogs,  
And banish'd all the varmint;  
The frogs went hop, the toads went slop,  
Plump dash into the water,  
And the bastes committed suicide  
For to save themselves from slaughter.

This legend of St. Patrick's struggle with the serpents is told by C. O. with good-natured humour, but we pass it over to reach an "ower true tale,"—a tale of superstition, but also of woman's love for husband and children, "love

reaching beyond the tomb, and fastening on eternity."

"Just near the top was a little flat—'There sir,' says the guide, 'just there, a poor woman and her two chilid perished not long ago—the crathur's husband had died of a decay, and left her desolate, and it was not her low state, without any one to do a hand's turn for herself and her children, that grieved her—but it was that she had no means to get masses said for his poor soul; and she thought of him every night suffering away in purgatory, and crying out in the middle of the flame.' 'Oh, Biddy jewel, can't you help me out of this torment?' So she thought of coming up here to the Reek; it was not the season at all for such a work, it was long after Hollantide, and not a pilgrim had passed up for many a long day; but poor Biddy was resolved to set out, for why, her dear Darby was a suffering; and as she was a lone woman, and had no one to leave her two children with, she took them with her and faced the mountain; it was as I said, a bad season; the day wet and windy, and some of the neighbours who saw her going up, shook their heads, and wished that God would get her safe over her blessed work—nobody can tell whether she went through all her stations or not; the crathur any how tried her best, and night came down on her; and such a night—the storm set in from the north-west, the ocean came tumbling in from the head of Achill—the rain that poured thick, soft, and sweeping below, was all hard driving sleet on the mountain. To this spot poor Biddy retreated for shelter, and nothing had she to save herself and her little ones but her poor threadbare cloak. To make my story short, the neighbours fearing for her went up next morning in search of her, and here they found her and the little things beside her all stiff and huddled together; the cloak was wrapped round the chilid—the poor fond mother (heavens be her rest, and sure it is she is there, dying when doing such a holy work) had stripped her own body of its covering to save those she loved better than her own life, and all to no purpose."

We have read this work with sorrow; it is painful to find a writer, who is manifestly a scholar and a gentleman, preaching hostility to five-sixths of his countrymen in the name of a religion that proclaims "Peace on earth, goodwill towards men." But so it is in Ireland.

What more from her saints can Hibernia require?  
St. Bridget, of yore, like a dutiful daughter,  
Supplied her 'tis said, with perpetual fire,  
And Saint's keeps her now in eternal hot water.

*List of New Books.*—Edinburgh Cabinet Library, Vols. XXV., XXVI., XXVII., History of British America, by Hugh Murray, F.R.S.E. with maps and engravings, 3 vols. 12mo. cl. 15s.—Hamilton King, or the Smuggler and the Dwarf, by the Old Sailor, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d.—Snowe's Rhine: Legends, Traditions, and History, 2 vols. 8vo. cl. 32s.—Polack's New Zealand, new edit. 2 vols. 8vo. 18s.—Hobbe's Leviathan, by Sir William Moseley, 8vo. cl. 12s.—Picturesque Panorama of the Rhine, eight feet long, cl. 15s.—Bernard's Arithmetical Perspective, 8vo. cl. 10s. 6d.—Cattermole's Sermons, 8vo. cl. 16s.—Robson's Greek Lexicon on the New Testament, on the basis of Dr. Robinson's, 12mo. cl. 18s. 6d.—Kyd, the Buccanier, or the Wizard of the Sea, 3 vols. post 8vo. 21s.—Webster's Speeches (American), 2 vols. 8vo. cl. 28s.—Dr. Salomon's Jewish Sermons, translated by Miss Goldsmith, 8vo. cl. 7s. 6d.—Robertson on the Teeth, 2nd edit. 8vo. cl. 7s. 6d.—Calvary, or the Cross of Christ, by the Rev. Mortlock Daniel, post 8vo. cl. 8s. 6d.—Lieber's Hermancut, 12mo. cl. 7s. 6d.—Bridges on the 119th Psalm, 14th edit. 12mo. 7s.—Sabbath Day Musings, 2 vols. cl. 6s.—Maynard's Key to Goodacre's Arithmetic, new edit. 12mo. cl. 6s.—Thoughts on what has been called Sensibility of the Imagination, &c. 8vo. cl. 5s.—Poems, by Thomas John Ouseley, 3rd edit. 12mo. cl. 6s.—Mrs. Weston's Poems, 8vo. bds. new edit. 7s. 6d.—The Jotting Book, by an Amateur, post 8vo. 5s.—Parren's Hand-Book for Judges, Barristers, &c. 8vo. cl. 6s.—Parley's Bible Geography, square 16mo. cl. 3s. 6d.—Roads and Railroads, 12mo. cl. 5s.—Great Western Railway Guide, 12mo. cl. 4s.—The Authors of France, an Outline of French Literature, by Achilles Abitie, 24mo. cl. 3s.—Jay's View of Slavery, 12mo. cl. 3s. 6d.—John Smith's Letters, with Pictures to match, 12mo. bds. 3s. 6d.—Hooke's Five Sermons before the University of Oxford, 2nd edit. 16mo. bds. 3s.—Ingen's Entomologist's Guide, 2nd edit. 18mo. cl. 3s.—Marsy and Florence, 5th edit. 12mo. cl. 5s.—Parry's (Rev. J.) Discourses, 12mo. cl. 5s.—Nicholson's Lectures on Hesekiel, &c. cl. 3s. 6d.—Words of Wisdom for my Child, 2nd edit. 32mo. cl. 2s.—Cheap Rishes, being Choice Selections from the Writings of the Most Extremed Divines, super-royal 32mo. cl. 2s.—Astrob's Classical Table Book, 12mo. swd. 1s.—The First Communion, by Francis L. Parker, 12mo. cl. 2s.—Wolferstan's Conversations on Early Education, 12mo. swd. 1s. 6d.

#### TRUTHS AND FICTIONS OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

ANTIQUARIAN research, long confined to the classical epochs of Greek and Roman history, has been, of late years, directed to the Middle Ages—a period which may be regarded as the infancy of modern society; for in it are to be found the roots of our language, our laws, our institutions, our manners, and, in some degree, of our creeds. The pleasure derived from this study is similar to that which results from the reminiscences of childhood; but we must never forget that much of this literature was designed for the cradle and the nursery of civilization. Thus viewed, even so much of the literature of the Middle Ages as is generally regarded as barren and unprofitable will be found equally amusing and instructive; a meaning will appear in its absurdity, a lurking purpose of wisdom in its wildest aberrations. Were any one of us to have the thoughts and imaginings of our youth suddenly unfolded to our matured judgment, in all their former strength and weakness, we should doubtless find theories as wild, guesses as strange, and conclusions as unsupported, as any to be found in the range of legendary lore; our laugh at ourselves would be just as hearty, as that with which the nineteenth century greets the creeds and opinions of the tenth.

In tracing the history of an individual mind, it is often curious to observe the changes undergone by an erroneous impression, before it is finally eradicated; in most instances we shall find, that it does not disappear until it has become linked with some ludicrous association; and we think that this principle would supply a test by which the age of the different versions in which the legends appear might be determined with some accuracy. That whimsical Norse tale, 'The Ride of the Lapland Witch,' no longer exists for us in its old terrific form, the ludicrous is mingled with the horrible, as will at once appear from a few specimens:

She spoke the spell which summons from hell  
The horrid spirits of evil;  
They obeyed her behest, and thus she address'd  
The tallest and ugliest devil:—

"I wearied my broomstick on yesternight,  
While taking my usual ride,  
To a supper in Scotland I wish to take flight,  
So on you will I get astride."

The remonstrances of the demon, and the threats of the witch, could not be translated, without a more intimate knowledge of Billingsgate rhetoric than we have the good fortune to possess; so we pass on to a specimen of demoniac politeness, immediately after the witch's wrath had been roused by an attempt to shake her from the saddle:—

She pinch'd and she cuff'd her poor courser sore,  
Who shouted with pain and passion;  
But, dreading her power, he said no more  
Than 'Ma'am, that's an ugly fashion.'

One incident of the journey must be quoted:—

The Astronomer Royal of Denmark that night  
Was watching a planet's course,  
And knew not what to make of the witch's flight,  
As she passed on her demon horse.

"There's something between us and beautiful Venus,  
Which darkens all my glass."

The witch heard the phrase, and, to his amaze,

Called down, "Hold your tongue, you ass!"

In this, and in many similar versions of ancient legends, there is manifestly a spirit of ridicule resulting from incredibility, which at once proves that the story has been modernized; and, indeed, the best points in the judgment of the nineteenth century, are the humorous additions. In a genuine legend, there are no such signs of unbelief; the witches and the saints perform wonders which it is scarcely possible for any person to read in these days without some ludicrous association, but which the writers of the Middle Ages relate in the full persuasion that they could never provoke a smile.

The explanation of natural phenomena is, in every country, the great source of popular legends. The Greeks and Romans attributed every strange occurrence and unusual appearance to the interference of the gods; the Catholics of the Middle Ages ascribed them to the miraculous powers of the saints; and the Protestants in the first centuries after the Reformation explained them by the agency of magic. It is singular, indeed, to find, that the miracles of the Romish saints, and the wonders wrought by the Protestant witches, often coincide in the most minute particulars, only differing as to the spiritual agency.

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This fact, which has not escaped the notice of old controversialists, seems to us to mark a progress in intelligence, for the saints come nearer to natural agency than the gods, and the witches are a further advance towards probability. It would be a curious, and not a useless speculation, to trace thus the progress of superstition in its theories of spiritual agency; but we must, for the present, confine our attention to the legends of the saints, and especially to such as illustrate the state of knowledge just before the revival of literature.

The quantity of phenomena explained by supernatural agency may be regarded as a measure of civilization in dark ages and countries. Where we find miracles worked to hold a candle, to extinguish a fire, to churn butter, and to extract a thorn, we may be assured that science is almost wholly unknown. Let us now examine some of the legends of the saints with this view, and see how far they give us information of the state of knowledge. Perhaps at some future occasion we may similarly examine the history of witches.

It is recorded of Saint Dominic, that he was devoted to study and prayer at all hours. The Devil, though jealous of his eminent virtues, allowed him to pursue his course in peace during the day, but sent a malicious imp named Cosbi, who played him a thousand pranks every night. On one occasion, Cosbi amused himself by blowing out the candle; the saint, for some time, bore this with great good humour, but at length, growing impatient, he said, "Master Cosbi, you have been extinguishing the candle for your pleasure, you must now hold it for mine, until I finish my appointed task." The demon was forced to obey; he held the candle until it burned down to his claws, but the saint still compelled him to hold on, and Cosbi got a sore paw, which cured him of playing tricks on the saints for the future.

Saint Bernard was one day driving in a cart; the Devil smashed the wheel, and gave the holy man an upset; but Bernard ordered Satan to bend his body into a circular form, and take the place of the wheel he had broken. Bernard then drove the cart over a rough rocky road, and poor Satan received so many bruises, that our authority declares he will not recover from them for the rest of his life.†

Saint Francis began his career of holiness by robbing his father in order to bestow charity upon a hospital of lepers, and build a church at the recommendation of a crucifix, which did him the honour of personally requesting his assistance. The father of the saint brought him as a criminal before the bishop, when Francis stripped himself naked, renounced his parentage, clothed himself in rags, tied a rope round his loins, and went to preach the duty of renouncing all worldly possessions. He was so humble, that he called animals, plants, and even the elements, his brothers. He was so fervent, that he preached to birds, fishes, sheep, and horses; he was so venerable, that the birds caressed him, sung to him, or were silent at his command. Some of this saint's miracles are more than usually whimsical. He was once preaching to a crowded congregation—

But while he spake, a braying ass

Did sing most loud and clear.

The auditory was thrown into confusion; but Francis, turning round to the animal, said—"My brother donkey, keep yourself quiet, and permit me to preach to the people." Upon which the sapient beast placed its head between its legs, in an attitude of attention, and remained perfectly quiet. On another occasion, a furious wolf came into the city, and bit several people. Amid the general terror, Francis went up to the wolf, and said—"Brother wolf, if you will promise me not to go on with these mischievous pranks, I will engage that the citizens here shall regularly supply you with food." Brother wolf bowed his head very reverently, as much as to say, that he desired no better bargain. "Pledge your honour to the agreement," said the saint. Brother wolf lifted up his right fore-paw, and placed it in the hand of brother Francis, with all imaginable

† *Medulla Vitæ Bernardi.* Antwerp, 1653. In this edition there is an engraving of the scene, in which full justice is done to the ugliness of the Devil.

‡ *Asino quem nemo tenere poteret, dixit, "Frater Asine, stia in quiete, et mitte me predicate populo."* *Statim adiutorius caput inter crura sua, et stetit quæsus.* *Burgh. Pl. in vñ St. Franc. p. 146.*

politeness. The saint then addressed the wondering crowd—"My brother wolf, whom you see here, promises to live in peace with you, if you treat him kindly, and supply his necessities, as I have pledged myself that you will." The whole assembly vowed that the wolf should want for nothing. The saint then said—"Now, brother wolf, do you bind yourself strictly to keep your promise?" The wolf bent his knees, placed his right paw on his left breast, and made a graceful bow. During the two years that the animal lived, he quietly went from door to door, receiving his pittance according to agreement, and keeping good terms, not only with the citizens, but with all the dogs of the town. Women, it appears, were less obedient to the saint than wolves or donkeys. One day, whilst he was preaching, a woman disturbed him by playing the tambourine: he exhorted her to be quiet, but she persevered; upon which Francis called upon Satan to remove the nuisance, and she was carried off through the air.

These legends of the saints are more than twenty-five thousand in number; sacred and profane history equally supplied hints to the compilers; but there are some characteristics which deserve notice in the narratives of the different national patrons. Extravagant penances are the chief merit of the Asiatic and Egyptian saints; piety and learning are usually attributed to those of southern Europe; the Germanic legends display a wild spirit of adventure, and not unfrequently a ferocious intolerance, probably derived from the sanguinary worship of Odin; while there is a childish simplicity in the Celtic narratives, and especially in those of the Welsh and Irish, which exalts the most ordinary incidents into miraculous interferences. We take the following enumeration of a few of the wonders ascribed to St. Brigid from the "Triad of Irish Saints," (Patrick, Columba, and Brigid,) published at Louvain, A.D. 1647. We spare our readers a detail of the absurd penances by which the holy maid arrived at saintly perfection:—

No saint was so rigid as Irish St. Brigid,  
Whose sanctity reached to her feet;  
As barefoot she rang'd, into fountains were chang'd  
The kennels she cross'd in the street.‡

With charity burning, she gave all her churning  
To the poor, who in Ireland abound;  
When lo! with fresh creaming the barrel was streaming,  
And butter o'erflowed on the ground.

Thrice a day she would dish up fresh milk for the bishop,  
And yet her cow never went dry;  
She put out her pail, in a tempest of hail,  
And fresh butter came down from the sky.

Her sheep once while feeding, the weather unheeding,  
She was drench'd by a torrent of rain;  
But on a bright ray, that just crossed her way,  
Her garments were soon dried again.

She sent to St. Senan,\* cheese and salt cross the Shannon;  
They floated unhurt through the flood;  
She sought fruit in spring, and, O wonderful thing!  
Ripe apples came forth from the bud.

One night at a party, all jovial and hearty,  
The guests found their liquor to fail;  
But Brigid declared the jug should not be spar'd,  
So she chang'd all the water to ale.

Lame men she set walking, and dumb women talking,  
But stopp'd husbands' ears to save strife;  
It needs not to write, how she gave the blind sight,  
And she once raised an infant to life.

But the piety of Brigid, it seems, was not imitated by her countrywomen; the legends of the Irish saints abound with anecdotes of the efforts made by the ladies to withdraw them from their hermitages and deserts. Every one knows the legend of Saint Kevin:—

By that lake whose gloomy shore,  
Skylark never wanders over, &c.

But Saint Fiacre is less celebrated: this hymn, sung at his funeral service, tells how his wicked wife tried to force him back into the world:—

Damnat opus malefic,  
Diffamat artem magici;  
Presentandus hic præsid,  
Læsus insedit lapidi;—

§ On one occasion into milk, p. 529; and on another into honey, p. 538.

¶ St. Brigid was not the only saint who used a beam as a clothes-line; similar economy was displayed by St. Gaur, St. Florence, and St. Deicola. The biographer of Deicola says that the event is not improbable, because "a ray of light, according to the definition of philosophers, is only a condensation of air."—*Vide Acta Sanctorum, in loco.*

\*\* Senanus, or Sananus, satirized by Moore for want of gallantry.—See *Irish Melodies.*

Lapa cedit nec creditur  
Petra sedes insculpit;  
O fermea nequitia;  
Petra major dicitur.

Our gallantry prevents us from hazarding a version of these lines, so we quote the translation, from a number of the 'Dublin University Magazine.'

She raised the hideous cry of witch up,  
And down upon him brought the bishop;  
Meanwhile the saint, such toil oppress'd him,  
Sat down upon a stone to rest him.

His sacred seat the stone indented,

And left its holy mark imprinted;

Whereby that husky, twas evinc'd on,

That woman's heart's more hard than whinstone.

Equally strange miracles abound in the histories of other saints: a raven supplies Paul the Hermit with food for ten years—a pigeon brings the eucharist to St. Elmo—ducks worship at the command of St. Nicholas—a mule proves the mystery of transubstantiation—and St. Coletta's lamb kneels very reverentially at mass. But in these examples we approach a new class of legends—those manifestly invented for a fraudulent purpose, which would require to be examined separately.

Guizot, Charpentier, and Villemain maintain, that the legends should be simply regarded as the poetry and romance of the dark ages, but it would be no difficult task to show, that many of them had a direct political tendency: indeed, reports of miracles had always a very suspicious coincidence, in point of time, with the questions at issue between the Church and the State. Even towards the close of the sixteenth century, Sandoval, Bishop of Pamplona, assured the Spaniards, that Protestantism was odious to God, for that he had himself seen the sun standing still while Charles V. was completing his victory over the Lutherans at Mühlberg.

We have hitherto looked over the infantine stories of the Middle Ages, for the legends of the saints belong chiefly to the sixth and seventh centuries, when civilization was in its cradle, although it must be admitted that they continued much later to amuse "children of a larger growth." On a future occasion, we may take the legends and treatises which mark progress, especially those connected with history and science, both of which suffered as much as religion from the imaginations of the legend writers.

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

In our abstract of proceedings at the last meeting of the Geographical Society, we announced the rediscovery of the Aurora Islands, by Mr. Burrows, of New York, during a recent voyage to the South Atlantic. A letter from our United States Correspondent gives us some particulars of this expedition, which are romantic enough to deserve to be recorded. It appears, that some few years since a neighbour and friend of Mr. Burrows, a Capt. Johnson, after consulting with, and communicating to him his views and intentions, sailed from New York to the Antarctic Seas. Letters were received from Johnson when in a high latitude, and still sailing south, since which no information has been received either from or of him. These circumstances weighed upon the mind of Burrows, who thinking there was a possibility of rescuing his friend, resolved to follow the example of Capt. Back, and to proceed in search of him. Two small vessels were accordingly fitted out for the expedition. The success in the principal object has been but small, although the hazards run were great, and the labours most oppressive. When five days beyond the Falklands, they fell in with a field of icebergs twenty-five miles in length, the whole presenting the same uniform appearance as a sheet of new-made ice. They found large bays and good harbours around the iceberg, but no anchorage except by fastening to the ice. The outer edge was on all sides a perpendicular cliff about 300 feet high, and so similar to the appearance of many shores, particularly the chalky cliffs of England, that it could only be known as ice from the thermometer or by approaching very near to it. Subsequently Mr. Burrows, when exploring in his boat, was wrecked on an iceberg, but he was rescued by another boat driven by accident to the spot, where for three days he and his crew had been without food. For six

† Most of them are designed to establish the mystery of transubstantiation, or the duty of paying tithes.

months he persevered, but without discovering any positive evidence of the fate of his friend. He found, indeed, clear traces of eight different wrecks, a house constructed from the wrecked vessels, and fitted up as a winter residence, several graves near it, and one body not interred. What a history "in little" is there in this last fact!

It is needless for us to note with satisfaction the recent triumph of the Cheap Postage Bill in the House of Commons:—we must also advert, with less pleasure, to the postponement of the consideration of the Copyright question, in the same assembly. But our opinions concerning both measures have been already so fully uttered, that further expatiation would be superfluous. To this memorandum of such proceedings in Parliament as concern our world of action, may be added, without unfitness, a line noticing the recent death of Mr. W. M. Praed, M.P.—not on the score of his political achievements, but in the remembrance of the high literary promise manifested by him when a very young man. We remember, in particular, his contributions to Knight's Quarterly Magazine, contemporaneous with Mr. Macaulay's first critical essays and Huguenot ballads. Mr. Praed's serio-comic legends in the Whistlecraft vein, but not in the Whistlecraft measures, are far too graceful and piquant to be wholly forgotten.

We last week mentioned that Dr. Buckland had been elected Corresponding Member of the Institute of France, in the room of M. Reboul, but were not at the time aware, that of eleven candidates submitted for selection from, seven were English, a fact sufficiently gratifying to British pride. We also announced that the Chamber of Deputies had voted pensions to M. Daguerre and M. Niepce. We have since received the Report, presented by M. Arago to the Chamber, on which that body came to the vote. We had intended to have translated the principal passages, but find that it is merely a repetition of facts which have appeared at different times in this journal, and throws no light upon the secret of the invention.

Mr. Bulfe (so the daily journals announce) is about to present himself to the public in a new capacity—namely, as the lessee of the English Opera House; which theatre, it is further said, has been engaged, on the cessation of his term of occupancy, by a company of theatrical gentlemen, with Mr. G. Bennett at their head. Few rumours are current concerning the Autumnal Musical Festivals, beyond the engagement of Spohr at Norwich, already announced; to which, we believe, may be added that of Madame Persiani. It is exceeding our strict usage to notice any exhibitions of art which are private; and yet it is impossible not to break the custom, when we are enabled to gossip about a rarity of such remarkable interest as the violoncello playing of M. Bernhard Romberg, the patriarch of his instrument; one of whose objects, in paying London a flying visit, is to make arrangements for publishing the result of his life's experience, in the form of an elementary work. Time has, of course, told its tale on M. Romberg's great powers; but enough remains of the most thorough command over the bow and the strings—enough of manly, graceful, honest expression—as distinguished from the affectations of the newer school,—to assure us that his European reputation has been neither falsely built up nor foolishly perpetuated. M. Romberg's tone is superior to that of any violoncellist we have ever heard, because fuller of life; the drawback upon all instruments so essentially grave in sound, being a certain heaviness, which many have attempted to relieve or disguise by artifices any thing but legitimate. With M. Romberg, however, the very lowest bass notes have a clearness and crispness, totally devoid of thinness or harshness, which are new to us; and thus his performance—setting aside the specialty of entire mastery over an instrument of great difficulty—has a general freshness and interest separating it from all the other violoncello playing with which we are familiar.

NOW OPEN.

DIORAMA, REGENCY'S PARK.

NEW EXHIBITION.—THE CORONATION OF HER MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA, at Westminster Abbey, and the INTERIOR of the CHURCH of SANTA CROCE, at Florence, with all the effects of Light and Shade from Noon till Midnight. Both Paintings are by LE CHEVALIER BOUTON.—Open from Ten till Five.

#### BRITISH INSTITUTION, PALL MALL.

The GALLERY, with a selection of PICTURES by ANCIENT MASTERS of the Italian, Spanish, Flemish, Dutch, and French Schools, OPEN DAILY, from Ten in the Morning until Six in the Evening. Admission, 1s. Catalogue, 1s.

WILLIAM BARNARD, Keeper.

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Brilliant Phenomena of Polarized Light, shown by Mr. Goddard's Polariscopic. Musical Performances on the *Æolophone*, by Mr. Warne. The only living specimen of the celebrated *Electric Fish*, brought to England for the first time, and extensive means for showing Electricity and Magnetism, which distinguish this Institution. Performance on the new Double Accordion by M. Reissner, of Paris, on Tuesdays and Fridays at 3 o'clock. The exhibition of the Invisible Girl, as well as other attractive novelties, in addition to the Chemical Illustrations, Microscope, Steam Gun, &c.

Open daily at Ten A.M. Admittance, 1s.

#### SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

##### ROYAL SOCIETY.

June 20.—John William Lubbock, Esq., V.P. and Treasurer, in the chair.

Sir Thomas Dyke Acland, Bart., M.P., Edwin Guest, Esq., and John Hogg, Esq., M.A., were elected Fellows.

'Additional Experiments on the Formation of Alkaline and Earthy Bodies by Chemical Action when Carbonic Acid is present,' by Robert Rigg, Esq.—The author gives a detailed account of several experiments in which sugar, water, and yeast only were employed, and from which he deduces the conclusion that alkaline and earthy matters are formed by chemical action. In one set of experiments, some of which were made in silver, others in china, and others in glass apparatus, after the vinous fermentation had gone on during five days, the quantity of ashes obtained was, in the silver apparatus eighteen, in the china nineteen, and in the glass fifteen times greater than the previous quantity. A further examination of these ashes showed that they consisted of potash, soda, lime, and a residue not acted upon by muriatic acid. The author states that, however irreconcileable to our present chemical knowledge this important conclusion may at first sight appear, yet when it is taken in connexion with the decomposition of other vegetable matter, and with the phenomena which accompany the growth of plants, it may not excite surprise; and may be regarded as in harmony with the phenomena of natural science. He concludes by offering suggestions towards extending the inquiry into the subject of formation of bones of animals by the action of the powers inherent in their organization.

'On the Constitution of the Resins,' Parts II. & III., by J. F. W. Johnston, Esq.—In this paper the author, pursuing the train of investigation of which he has already given an account in a former communication, gives tabulated results of his chemical examination of several varieties of gamboge, and formulae expressing their chemical constitution. A detailed account is given of the properties of the gamboge acid, and of the salts it forms with various bases, such as the gambodies of potash and soda, of ammonia, and of different earths and metals, particularly lime, strontia, magnesia, lead, copper, zinc, and silver. He concludes from this investigation that the most probable formula for gamboge is  $C_{40} H_{32} O_8$ . In the analysis, however, of every specimen, there occurred a deficiency of carbon, amounting to nearly one per cent.; a deficiency supposed to be due to a change produced during the preparation of the natural resin for the market. By a heat of 400° Fahr. gamboge undergoes a partial decomposition; a resin, soluble in alcohol, being formed; and another resin, insoluble in that menstruum: the formula representing the latter being  $C_{40} H_{22} O_9$ . Gamboge forms with the metallic oxides numerous salts, the existence and constitution of which, however, the experiments of the author only render probable. The inquiries of the author were next directed to the chemical constitution of the resin of guaiacum, and to the properties of the salts it forms with various bases. He then examines the *acaroid resin*, which exudes from the *Xanthorrhœa hastilis*, and is often known by the name of *Botany-bay resin*, or *yellow gum*; and finds its formula to be  $C_{40} H_{20} O_{12}$ , showing that it contains more oxygen than any other resinous substance hitherto analyzed.

The general conclusions drawn by the author from these researches are the following:—

1. Many of the resins may be represented by for-

mulae exhibiting their elementary constitution, and the weight of their equivalents, in which 40 C is a constant quantity.

2. There appear to be groups, in which the equivalents, both of carbon and the hydrogen, are constant, the oxygen only varying; and others, in which the hydrogen alone varies, the two other elements being constant.

In the third part of the same series of investigations, the author examines the constitution of the resin of Sandarach of commerce, which he finds to consist of three different kinds of resin, all of which possess acid properties. In like manner he finds that the resin of the *Pinus abies*, or spruce fir, commonly called *Thus* or ordinary *Frankincense*, consists of two acid resins; the one easily soluble in alcohol, the other sparingly soluble in that menstruum. The gum resin *oblatum*, of commerce, was found to consist of a mixture of at least two gum resins, the resinous ingredient of each of which differs from that of the other in composition and properties.

'On the Phosphates,' by J. Dalton, D.C.L.—The author takes a review of the labours of preceding chemists which bear upon the subject of the atomic constitution of phosphoric acid, and the salts in which it enters as a constituent; and shows their conformity with the views he has already advanced on the subject. A supplement is added, giving an account of the effects of various degrees of heat on the salt denominated the *pyrophosphate of soda*.

'On the Arseniates,' by the Same.—The author here examines the conformity of the results of the analysis of the salts of arsenic with his theory, in the same manner as he has done with the phosphates in the preceding paper.

'On the Markings of the Eel-back Dun variety of the Horse, common in Scotland,' by W. Macdonald.—The author states some observations which he has made on the coloured marks apparent in a variety of the horse, common in Scotland, and there called the *Eel-back Dun*, and which afford grounds for doubting the accuracy of the conclusions deduced in a paper, by the late Earl of Morton, published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1820. The title of the paper referred to is 'A Communication of a singular fact in Natural History,' namely, that a young chestnut mare of seven-eighths Arabian blood, after producing a female hybrid by a male quagga, had subsequently produced, by a fine black Arabian horse, a filly and a colt, both of which had the character of the Arabian breed as decided as could be expected where fifteen-sixteenths of the blood are Arabian, but in colour, in the hair of their manes, and the markings of the back and legs, bore striking resemblance to the quagga. The author, finding that similar markings are very commonly met with on the Eel-back dun ponies of Scotland, suggests that as the breed of the mare in question was not pure, she may have inherited the tendency to those peculiar markings. He moreover observes, that the cross bar markings on the legs are not found in the *quagga*, but only in the *zebra*, which is a species quite distinct from the *quagga*; a fact which he considers as completely overturning the reasoning by which the conclusions stated in Lord Morton's paper were deduced. The facts, he thinks, admit of a more natural explanation, and one more consistent with the known physiological laws of development, by supposing the stain in the purity of the mare's Arab blood to have arisen from the circumstance of an early progenitor of the mare having belonged to an Eel-backed dun variety, the peculiarities of which re-appeared in a later generation.

'Report of a Geometrical Measurement of the Height of the Aurora Borealis above the Earth,' by the Rev. J. Farquharson, L.L.D.—The principal object to which the author directed the inquiries of which he here gives an account, is the determination by geometrical measurement of the height of the aurora borealis, and of the altitude and azimuth of the point to which the streamers seem to converge, and which has been termed the *centre of the corona*: these latter determinations constituting important data for enabling us to form a clear conception of the whole definite arrangement and progress of the meteor, and also a correct judgment of the degree of reliance to be placed on the methods employed for measuring its height above the earth. The paper is chiefly occupied with the details of the observations made or

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collected by the author, with their critical discussion, with the correction of some misapprehensions which have existed respecting the views stated by the author in his former papers, and with a reply to the strictures of M. Arago on those views. The result of the geometrical measurement of one particular aurora, gave as the height of its upper edge, 5,693 feet above the level of the Manse at Alford; and the vertex of its arch was found to be 14,831 feet northward of the same place. The vertical extension of the fringe of streamers was 3,212 feet; leaving 2,481 feet for the height of the lower edge above the level of Alford. The tops of the Corean hills, immediately under the aurora, are about 1,000 feet higher than that level; so that the lower edge of the arch was only 1,500 feet above the summit of that range of hills.

'On the structure and functions of the Spleen,' by T. G. Hake, M.D.—The author, passing in review the various opinions which have been advanced by anatomists respecting the intimate structure of the spleen, arrives at the conclusion that hitherto only vague premature inductions have been made. It is generally admitted that the fibrous envelope of this organ is formed of the external fibres of the splenic vein; and that from the internal surface of this envelope fibrous prolongations are continued into the interior of its substance, giving support to a fine cellular membrane, which is continuous with the edges, and variously reflected so as to constitute cells. The parenchyma, or solid structure of the spleen, everywhere accompanies these membranous productions, and forms the exterior walls of the cells; being composed of branches of the splenic arteries, of the granular terminations of those arteries constituting the *splenic grains* of Malpighi, of *venules*, which ramify around the splenic grains, and of *cellules*, into which the venules open, and from which the splenic veins take their rise. The author concludes, as the result of his inquiries, that a dilatable cellular tissue exists, containing venous blood, between the granules within which the arteries terminate, and the venules on the outer side of the splenic grains: that the venous membrane, which is continued from the cells to the cellules, as well as to the venules, becoming more and more attenuated, but without changing its essential structure, gradually loses its tubular form, and resumes its primitive character of cellular tissue; and that the artery, in like manner, is limited in its distribution within the granules by a cellular structure, which becomes vicarious of it, and determines the function it has to perform. The author, in conclusion, offers some observations on the probable functions of the spleen. He considers the opinion which supposes that organ to be distended, at particular times, with arterial blood, as being completely refuted by the evidence derived from the preceding account of its minute structure; and suggests the probability of the spleen being rather a diverticulum for venous blood. The paper was accompanied by seven drawings illustrating the structures described.

'On the conditions of Equilibrium of an Incompressible Fluid, the particles of which are acted upon by Accelerating Forces,' by James Ivory, Esq., K.H., M.A., F.R.S., &c.—The intention of this paper is to examine the principles and methods that have been proposed for solving the problem of which it treats, with the view of obviating what is obscure and exceptionable in the investigation usually given of it. The principle first advanced by Huyghens is clearly demonstrated and is attended with no difficulty. This principle requires that the resultant of the forces in action at the surface of the fluid in equilibrium and at liberty, shall be perpendicular to that surface: and it is grounded on this, that the forces must have no tendency to move a particle in any direction upon the surface, that is, in a plane touching the surface. In the Principia, Sir Isaac Newton assumes that the earth, supposed a homogeneous mass of fluid in equilibrium, has the figure of an oblate elliptical spheroid of revolution which turns upon the less axis: and, in order to deduce the oblateness of the spheroid from the relation between the attractive force of the particles, and their centrifugal force caused by the rotatory velocity, he lays down this principle of equilibrium, that the weights or efforts of all the small columns extending from the centre to the surface, balance one another round the centre. The exactness of this principle is evident in the case of the

elliptical spheroid, from the symmetry of its figure: and it is not difficult to infer that the same principle is equally true in every mass of fluid at liberty and in equilibrium by the action of accelerating forces on its particles. In every such mass of fluid, the pressure, which is zero at the surface, increases in descending below the surface on all sides: from which it follows that there must be a point in the interior at which the pressure is a maximum. Now this point of maximum pressure, or centre, is impelled equally in all directions by all the small columns standing upon it and reaching to the surface; and as the pressure in every one of these columns increases continually from the surface to the centre, it follows that the central point sustains the total effect of all the forces which urge the whole body of fluid. It follows also, from the property of a maximum, that the central point may be moved a little from its place without any variation of the pressure upon it: which proves that the forces at that point are zero. Thus the point of maximum pressure is in stable equilibrium relatively to the action of the whole mass of fluid: which establishes Newton's principle of the equiponderance of the central columns in every instance of a fluid in equilibrium and at liberty. The two principles of Huyghens and Newton being established on sure grounds, the next inquiry is, whether they are alone sufficient for determining the figure of equilibrium. Of this point there is no direct and satisfactory investigation: and in applying the two principles to particular cases, it has been found that an equilibrium determined by one, is not in all cases verified by the other; and even in some instances, that there is no equilibrium when both principles concur in assigning the same figure to the fluid. Further researches are therefore necessary to dispel the obscurity still inherent in this subject. In a mass of fluid in equilibrium, if we suppose that small canals are extended from a particle to the surface of the mass, the particle will be impelled with equal intensity by all the canals: for, otherwise, it would not remain immovable, as an equilibrium requires. It has been inferred that the equal pressures of the surrounding fluid upon a particle, are sufficient to reduce it to a state of rest. Hence has arisen the principle of equality of pressure, which is generally admitted in this theory. Now, if the matter be considered accurately, it will be found that the only point within a mass of fluid in equilibrium which is at rest by the sole action of the surrounding fluid, is the central point of Newton, or the point of maximum pressure. The reason is that, on account of the maximum, the pressure of all the canals terminating in the central point, increases continually as the depth increases; so that, besides the pressures of the canals, there is no other cause tending to move the particle. With respect to any other particle, the pressure caused by the action of the forces in some of the canals standing upon the particle, will necessarily increase at first in descending below the surface, and afterwards decrease; so that the effective pressure transmitted to the particle, is produced by the action of the forces upon a part only of the fluid contained in such canals. If a level surface be drawn through any particle, it is proved in the paper, that the equal pressures of the surrounding fluid on the particle, are caused solely by the forces which urge the portion of the fluid on the outside of the level surface, the fluid within the surface contributing nothing to the same effect. Thus a particle in a level surface is immovable by the direct and transmitted action of the fluid on the outside of the level surface; but it will still be liable to be moved from its place unless the body of fluid within the level surface have no tendency to change its form or position by all the forces that act on its own particles. What has been said not only demonstrates the insufficiency of the principle of equality of pressure for determining the figure of equilibrium of a fluid at liberty, but it points out the conditions which are necessary and sufficient for solving the problem in all cases. The pressure must be a maximum at a central point within the mass: it must be zero at the surface of the fluid: and, these two conditions being fulfilled, there will necessarily exist a series of interior level surfaces, the pressure being the same at all the points of every surface, and varying gradually from the maximum quantity to zero. Now all the particles in the same level surface have no tendency

to move upon that surface, because the pressure is the same in all directions: wherefore if we add the condition that every level surface shall have a determinate figure when one of its points is given, it is evident, both that the figure of the mass will be ascertained, and that the immobility of the particles will be established. Maclaurin's demonstration of the equilibrium of the elliptical spheroid will always be admired, and must be instructive from the accuracy and elegance of the investigation. That geometer was the first who discovered the law of the forces in action at every point of the spheroid; and it only remained to deduce from the known forces the properties on which the equilibrium depends. These properties he states as three in number: and of these the two, which relate to the action of the forces at the surface and the centre of the spheroid, are the same with the principles of Huyghens and Newton, and coincide with two of the conditions laid down above. The third property of equilibrium, according to Maclaurin, consists in this, that every particle is impelled equally by all the rectilineal canals standing upon it and extending to the surface of the spheroid. Now it does not follow from this property that a particle is reduced to a state of rest within the spheroid, by the equal pressures upon it of the surrounding fluid; because these pressures may not be the effect of all the forces that urge the mass of the spheroid, but may be caused by the action of a part only of the mass. Maclaurin demonstrates that the pressure impelling particle in any direction is equivalent to the effort of the fluid in a canal, the length of which is the difference of the polar semi-axis of the surface of the spheroid and a similar and concentric surface drawn through the particle, which evidently implies both that the pressures upon the particle are caused by the action of the fluid between the two surfaces, and likewise that the pressures are invariably the same upon all the particles in any interior surface, similar and concentric to the surface of the spheroid. Such surfaces are therefore the level surfaces of the spheroid; and every particle of the fluid is at rest, not because it is pressed equally in all directions, but because it is placed on a determinate curve surface, and has no tendency to move on that surface on account of the equal pressures of all the particles in contact with it on the same surface. Maclaurin seems ultimately to have taken the same view of the matter, when he says that "the surfaces similar and concentric to the surface of the spheroid, are the level surfaces at all depths." (Fl. §. 640.) It thus appears that the conditions laid down above as necessary and sufficient for an equilibrium, agree exactly with the demonstration of Maclaurin, when the true import of what is proved by that geometer is correctly understood. The general conditions for the equilibrium of a fluid at liberty being explained, the attention is next directed to another property, which is important, as it furnishes an equation that must be verified by every level surface. If we take any two points in a fluid at rest, and open a communication between them by a narrow canal, it is obvious that, whatever be the figure of the canal, the effort of the fluid contained in it will be invariably the same, and equal to the difference of the pressures at the two orifices. As the pressure in a fluid in equilibrium by the action of accelerating forces, varies from one point to another, it can be represented mathematically only by a function of three co-ordinates, that determine the position of a point: but this function must be such as is consistent with the property that obtains in every fluid at rest. If  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $a'$ ,  $b'$ ,  $c'$ , denote the co-ordinates of the two orifices of a canal; and  $\phi(a, b, c)$  and  $\phi(a', b', c')$  represent the pressures at the same points; the function  $\phi(a, b, c)$  must have such a form as will be changed into  $\phi(a', b', c')$ , through whatever variations the figure of a canal requires that  $a, b, c$  must pass to be finally equal to  $a', b', c'$ . From this it is easy to prove that the co-ordinates in the expression of the pressure must be unrelated and independent quantities. The forces in action are deducible from the pressure: for the forces produce the variations of the pressure. As the function that stands for the pressure is restricted, so the expressions of the forces must be functions that fulfil the conditions of integrability, without which limitation an equilibrium of the fluid is impossible. Thus, when the forces are given, the pressure may be found by an integration, which is always possible

when an equilibrium is possible: and as the pressure is constant at all the points of the same level surface, an equation is hence obtained that must be verified by every level surface, the upper surface of the mass being included. But although one equation applicable to all the level surfaces may be found in every case in which an equilibrium is possible, yet that equation alone is not sufficient to give a determinate form to these surfaces, except in one very simple supposition respecting the forces in action. When the forces that urge the particles of the fluid, are derived from independent sources, the figure of the level surfaces requires for its determination as many independent equations as there are different forces. In the latter part of the paper the principles that have been laid down are illustrated by some problems. In the first problem, which is the simplest case that can be proposed, the forces are supposed to be such functions as are independent of the figure of the fluid, and are completely ascertained when three co-ordinates of a point are given. On these suppositions all the level surfaces are determined, and the problem is solved, by the equation which expresses the equality of pressure at all the points of the same level surface. As a particular example of the first problem, the figure of equilibrium of a homogeneous fluid is determined on the supposition that it revolves about an axis, and that its particles attract one another proportionally to their distance. This example is deserving of attention on its own account; but it is chiefly remarkable because it would seem at first, from the mutual attraction of the particles, that peculiar artifices of investigation were required to solve it. But in the proposed law of attraction, the mutual action of the particles upon one another is reducible to an attractive force tending to the centre of gravity of the mass of fluid, and proportional to the distance from that centre; which brings the forces under the conditions of the first problem. The second problem investigates the equilibrium of a homogeneous planet in a fluid state, the mass revolving about an axis, and the particles attracting in the inverse proportion of the square of the distance. The equations for the figure of equilibrium are two; one deduced from the equal pressure at all the points of the same level surface; and the other expressing that the stratum of matter between a level surface and the upper surface of the mass, attracts every particle in the level surface in a direction perpendicular to that surface. No point can be proved in a more satisfactory manner than that the second equation is contained in the hypothesis of the problem, and that it is an indispensable condition of the equilibrium. Yet, in all the analytical investigations of this problem, the second equation is neglected, or disappears in the processes used for simplifying the calculation, and making it more manageable; which is a remarkable instance of attempting to solve a problem, one of the necessary conditions being omitted. The equations found in the second problem, are solved in the third problem, proving that the figure of equilibrium is an ellipsoid.

(We have not yet received the abstract of Mr. S. Harris's paper, on 'Inquiries concerning the Elementary Laws of Electricity, third series, but hope to give it next week.)

The Society adjourned over the long vacation, to meet again on the 21st of November.

#### GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

June 5.—The Rev. Dr. Buckland, President, in the chair.

Four communications were read:—

1. A paper, by Capt. J. B. Martin, of Ramsgate, 'On Remains of the Mammoth dredged up in the English Channel and German Ocean.'—The fishermen employed off the east coast of England are frequently impeded in their operations by large boulders and bones of mammalia becoming entangled in their tackle; and in order to clear their fishing grounds of such obstructions, they bring the masses on shore. The animal remains noticed in this paper are chiefly in the possession of the author, and consist of tusks, teeth, and bones of the Mastodon. They were obtained between Dungeness and Boulogne, Dover and Calais, and Yarmouth and the coast of Holland; and Capt. Martin states, that they were wholly procured in hollows or submarine valleys. The boulders are also accumulated in depressions, and consist of a great

variety of rocks. Some of them are much worn or rounded, but in no instance do they present those regularly shaped forms which would lead to the inference that they might have composed part of shipwrecked cargoes. To this communication was appended a note, by Sir John Trevet, on a molar of an elephant, found thirty-eight years ago in the bed of the Severn, near Watchet. The same gentleman has also informed Dr. Buckland that Roman pottery has been frequently procured, during the last fifty years, from the bottom of the estuary of the Thames, near Margate; and that Pot Island, off Herne Bay, has received its name from the quantity of similar remains obtained near it. A Roman vessel, laden with pottery, is supposed to have been wrecked at this spot.

2. 'A Description of five Fossil Trees found in the Excavations for the Manchester and Bolton Railway,' by Mr. J. Hawkshaw.—One of these trees was discovered in 1837, and the other four during the present year, in forming a drain. They are situated in a nearly straight line, in beds of shale belonging to the great Lancashire coal-field; and the distance between the first and the fifth is about 105 feet. The roots, as far as they have been exposed, are spreading; and they are apparently quite conformable in position to the inclination of the stratum in which they are imbedded. The stems are nearly at right angles to the plane of stratification, and were enveloped, when discovered, in a thin coating of friable coal. The internal argillaceous casts are fluted; and Mr. Hawkshaw states, that there are indications of a fibrous structure. The largest tree is eleven feet high, fifteen feet in circumference at the base, and seven and a half at the top. The others vary in height from six to two and a half feet, and in circumference, at the thickest part, from nine to six feet; but the girth is not always proportioned to the height. The roots of one of the largest specimens extended between five and six feet from the trunk. A thin stratum of coal was cut through on the same plane as that of the roots; and on excavating on the opposite side of the railroad, the seam was also found at the distance of about ten yards. In the immediate neighbourhood of the roots, the shale contained so great a number of *Lepidostrobus variabilis*, that more than a bushel of specimens were collected. Of the generic characters of the trees, Mr. Hawkshaw offers no opinion, as the coal which occupied the place of the bark was too friable to permit the external markings to be determined. He, however, alludes to the opinion of M. Adolphe Brongniart, that the *Lepidostrobus variabilis* was the organ of fructification of a species of Lepidodendron. Mr. Hawkshaw has not only prevented the trees being removed from the position in which they were discovered, but he has had them protected from the weather; and he invites geologists to examine the interesting phenomena which they present.

3. 'A notice of some organic bodies recently procured from the London clay,' by Mr. Wetherell.—These fossils were first observed by the author, in nodules of indurated clay, obtained from the excavations for the Birmingham Railway, between Euston Square and Kilburn. Of their true nature he offers no opinion, leaving the determination open to future research. Some of the specimens consist of flat flabelliform bodies, more or less corrugated on the surface, and covered with minute oviform grains in close contact with each other. Several of the specimens are cylindrical and branched, varying in diameter from half an inch to less than a tenth; and they are likewise wholly or partially covered with the egg-shaped grains. Besides these fossils of a definite form, Mr. Wetherell has procured a multitude of others perfectly amorphous. They are generally of a dark colour, and are for the most part without apparent internal structure, but they occasionally consist of concentric lamellæ. The granules are not unfrequently dispersed through the substance of the specimen, or they are collected in irregular patches on the surface. A series of these bodies illustrative of the memoir has been presented to the Society's Museum by Mr. Wetherell.

4. 'On the relations of the different parts of the old red sandstone in the counties of Murray, Nairn, Banff, and Inverness,' by Mr. Malcolmson. In 1838, Mr. Malcolmson announced to the Society, that Mr. Martin, of Elgin, had procured from the lowest divi-

sion of the old sandstone, near that town, remains of several species of fishes, characteristic of the formation in other districts. With the exception of the ichthyolites found at Gamrie, in a series of beds now proved to belong to the same system, the Elgin remains were the only fossils known to exist in the old red sandstone south of the Murry Firth, at the time Mr. Malcolmson, the Rev. G. Gordon, and Mr. Stables discovered the specimens noticed in this communication. The district in which these fishes were found extends from the village of Buckie, near Cullen, in Banffshire, to Culloden Moor, six miles south of Inverness. The higher and southern parts of the country are composed of gneiss and other crystalline schists, traversed by numerous granite veins. The old red sandstone system, which occupies the greater part of the lower tracts, Mr. Malcolmson divides into three portions. The lowest consists of conglomerates derived from the gneiss and associated rocks, and it contains fishes of the genera *Dipterus*, *Cheiracanthus*, *Coccosteus*, &c. It is considered by the author to represent the old red series of the Orkneys, Caithness, and Gamrie in Scotland, and the 'tile stone' or lowest part of the English old red system. The middle division is composed of marly conglomerates and sandstones containing calcareous concretions. It is characterized by a distinct series of fossil fishes, many of which are undescribed, and must be assigned to new genera. Mr. Malcolmson places this division on the parallel of the central strata of the old red to the south of the Grampians and in England. The uppermost series of beds consist of siliceous conglomerates and sandstones in which no fossils have yet been detected. The paper contained detailed sections of all the localities examined by the author; and he hopes soon to give full descriptions of the singular fishes found in the central division.

This being the last meeting of the session, the Society adjourned to the 6th of November.

#### ASTRONOMICAL SOCIETY.

June 14.—1. 'On the Method of determining the Longitude by Moon-culminating Stars,' by Mr. Epps, late Assis. Sec. to the Society.—This may be regarded as a continuation of a former paper by the author, on the same subject (*Athenæum*, No. 595). Considering the moon-culminating method as the best known method for determining the difference of distant meridians, it is much to be regretted that observations for this purpose, however carefully made, should become useless, if it so happen that corresponding observations cannot be found. It would, therefore, be a most important improvement on the method, if, in the absence of corresponding observed intervals, computed intervals could with safety be adopted to supply their place, even to a tolerable degree of approximation; and the object of the present paper is to show the amount of error, both in respect of the moon and stars, which, in the present state of the data, may be expected to arise from adopting such a procedure.

2. 'On the Optical Glass of the late Dr. Ritchie,' by Mr. Simms.—The author states, that as some interest is felt respecting the optical glass of the late Dr. Ritchie, his object is to communicate to the Society such particulars respecting it, as his experiments have enabled him to collect. Besides several pieces of very excellent crown, Mr. Simms obtained twenty-nine discs of flint-glass, varying in diameter from 4 to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  or 8 inches. These were circular, and had evidently been cast in a mould; in thickness they varied exceedingly, some being scarcely thick enough for the purpose for which they were intended; and others at least three times as thick as necessary. Of these twenty-nine discs, only three give promise of being fit for telescopes at all; two of 4, and one of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches diameter; and even these not likely to prove of the first order. The rest are, literally, full of veins and striæ; and the bestowal of any labour on them would obviously end in loss and disappointment. The results of series of comparative experiments are stated in the following table, in which the refractive and dispersive powers, for the lines of the spectrum distinguished by Fraunhofer as B and G, are pretty accurately given for the four specimens of flint-glass that were examined. The first is of glass, made by Guinand of Neuchâtel; the second was made several years

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since, at the Stangate Glass-works, near Lambeth; the third, by Dr. Ritchie; and the fourth, at the Falcon Glass-house, Whitefriars; and it will be seen, that in all those qualities which were made the subject of investigation, the flint-glass of Dr. Ritchie differs little, if at all, from that which is generally made in England. The fact, however, of a disc of flint-glass,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  inches in diameter, having been made sufficiently perfect for the construction of a good achromatic telescope, is unique in the history of glass-making in this country.

Flint-glass.	Specific Gravity.	Index of Refraction for B.	Index of Refraction for G.	Dispersive Power B. to G.
Guinand...	3.6459	1.616	1.644	.044
Stangate...	3.3747	1.594	1.619	.041
Ritchie ..	3.2269	1.573	1.597	.041
Falcon ..	3.1964	1.570	1.593	.039

3. On the Determination of the Longitudes of the Observatories of Edinburgh and Makerston, by means of Chronometers, by Mr. Dent.—The object of this communication is to describe an experiment for determining the longitude of Edinburgh and Makerston (the observatory of Sir Thomas M. Brisbane, Bart.) by means of twelve chronometers, furnished for the purpose by Messrs. Arnold and Dent. The chronometers, after their rates and errors had been ascertained at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, were conveyed to Edinburgh in a steam-ship, under the care of Sir T. Brisbane; and, after remaining some time at the Observatory there, were taken to Makerston (a distance of forty miles) by Prof. Henderson in a stage-coach; whence, after an interval of four days, they were brought back to the Observatory at Edinburgh, and ultimately returned by a steamer to Greenwich, where their errors and mean daily rates were again determined. The differences of longitude were computed by Mr. Henderson, who explains the method of computation, and gives the results in a letter which forms an appendix to the present paper. The mean result of all the chronometers, computed by the first method, gives the difference of longitude between Greenwich and Edinburgh =  $12^{\text{m}} 42.99$ ; and Mr. Henderson states that, in consequence of this determination, he now adopts  $12^{\text{m}} 43.0$  as the longitude of Edinburgh, in place of  $12^{\text{m}} 43.6$ , which he had formerly used, and which was the result of the trigonometrical survey. By the present determination, the longitude of Makerston from Greenwich is  $10^{\text{m}} 3^{\text{s}}.66$ . The longitude given in the *Nautical Almanac* is  $10^{\text{m}} 4^{\text{s}}.0$ , as obtained by Sir T. Brisbane, by joining his observatory with some of the stations of the trigonometrical survey. The performances of the chronometers appear to have been, on the whole, very satisfactory.

4. Some account of the progress of the trigonometrical survey now carrying on in India. Extracted from the correspondence of Colonel Everest. The narrative commences with the season of 1833-34, during which period the operations appear to have been confined to the selection of proper stations, and the arrangement of convenient methods for carrying the survey along the Doab territory; for measuring a base-line of verification near that district, and also for extending the triangulation to the very foot of the Himalaya mountains. In all the previous operations of this great trigonometrical survey, the principal stations were on the highest points of the mountains, or hilly land, which were visible in broad day from each other, so that there was no difficulty in selecting the most convenient and favourable spots. A new district, however, was now about to be traversed, where such advantages would not present themselves. Colonel Everest describes the Doab as a country which, though coming under the denomination of a flat alluvial formation, totally devoid of all natural elevations, has yet many mounds, which appear to have been raised by the inhabitants as a protection against inundations and external violence. The plan which Col. Everest contrived and adopted for the signals was the erection of lofty masts, 70 feet in height. A pulley, fixed at the top, furnished him the means of raising a bamboo staff in a horizontal position to that height: on attaining which a sway-rope, appended to one end of it, enabled him to raise an ignited blue-light, fixed at the other end, 20 or 25 feet above the mast. In looking about for a favourable spot for measuring a base-line, he had the good fortune, in the first essay, to select one which, in the end, proved the most convenient and proper.

This was at Dhera Dun, near Sisee Barn, on the verge of the Asan river. The site presented an uninterrupted view for several miles, nearly free from trees; and two adjacent mountains were admirably adapted for transferring points. The season of 1834-35 was occupied in measuring this base, as soon as the medical officer pronounced that the Dun could be entered without danger, for at some seasons it is a deadly country. Col. Everest took out with him a complete set of compensation measuring-rods, similar to those adopted in the Irish survey by Colonel Colby, together with an iron bar for the purpose of occasional comparisons with the rods; a similar iron bar, with which it had been carefully compared, being left in England for the purpose of obtaining its length, in terms of the Imperial standard measure. *It does not appear that this has yet been determined: so that the length of the base can only, at present, be considered as approximate.* The season of 1835-36 was employed in carrying on the triangulation; in which Col. Everest was much impeded by a long continuance of hazy and cloudy weather. It appears, however, that the principal triangulation was brought down to the line from Juktipura to Pagara; and that the stations immediately to the north of the latter place, had been visited by the large instruments: so that, except for the purpose of observing the supplemental, or third angles, at the two above-mentioned stations, the series may be considered as completed to the north of the river Chumbul. For his station-lights, Col. Everest found the Argand lamp, with a parabolic reflector, to be very effective, even in the most stormy weather. The lamp was enclosed in a wooden case, with a tin chimney at top, and a circular glass aperture in the door. As a proof of the efficacy of this arrangement, he states, that during a violent storm which set in from the east, and which lasted three days and nights without intermission, accompanied by much thunder and lightning, the rain falling in torrents, and the wind blowing in violent gusts against the two stations (Deri and Pahira), situated to the westward of Karol tower, at which he was observing, the lamps never waned for an instant during the night; and although the distance was nearly twenty-seven miles, the light was as vivid and steady as a star of the third magnitude. During the operations in the Doab, Col. Everest encountered some very extraordinary phenomena of refraction. He says, "That in many instances the distant heliotrope has, in the morning, instead of exhibiting a round disc, displayed itself in the form of a tall column. One of these was found, by actual measurement, to occupy  $44^{\text{o}}$  in the vertical plane; which, at that distance, is equivalent to a tower of 193 feet in height; and some of them seemed to occupy a still greater space." Again, the heliotrope, in one instance, when observed in the morning at  $7^{\text{h}} 20^{\text{m}}$  stood at an angle of  $4^{\circ} 32'$  elevation: and on the following morning, at the same hour, the angle of depression was  $4^{\circ} 36'$ : the difference in the two days being 548 seconds. In some instances, in the month of January, the distant heliotrope had its periodic hour of rising before sunset; but was never seen at any other hour of the day. In the months of March and April, however, the heliotropes, at sunrise, and sometimes for an hour after, were seen projected high upon the sky, and frequently in the form of a tall column. Col. Everest remarks, that the afternoon rise of the distant heliotrope is curious and beautiful. The first rays spread themselves like a running fire along the surface of the obstructing land, as if the disc were throwing out wings; the light then descends and re-ascends, till after a few oscillations it ultimately rises into a clear round disc, and remains visible till the sun becomes too feeble for reflection. The descent in the morning is equally remarkable. In favourable weather the round disc appears immediately subsequent to sunrise, projected high up in the sky; and, after having displayed itself in this form for a short time, it either gradually descends in the reverse order to that of the afternoon, or assumes the columnar form, and suddenly vanishes as if by an explosion. Col. Everest was induced to re-measure with the compensation bars the base line at Seronge, which he had measured in the year 1825 with the steel chain formerly used by Colonel Hamilton. He had remarked in his book that there was a discordance of 78.72 inches in the Beder base, as shown by actual

measurement and as deduced by triangulation from the base at Takal Khera; whilst the difference in the Seronge base was only 33.2 inches, whether deduced from actual measurement or by triangulation from the Takal Khera base. This led him to suspect the accuracy of the measuring chain, and induced him to compare it with one of the standard iron bars belonging to the new apparatus, in order that its state at that time might be placed on record. These comparisons were very carefully made in the year 1832, and as they were highly satisfactory, he is of opinion that the measurements, both at Takal Khera and at Seronge, may, as far as the capability of the chain extends, be considered as reducible to the same standard with the base at Dehra Dun. But he apprehends that the case is very different with all the bases that were measured prior to that of Takal Khera: for it appears that, in the intermediate time, owing to the want of due precaution, the joints of the steel chain had become thickly covered with, and in fact eaten into by, rust: in the process of clearing away which, the length of the standard of reference was lost for ever, and beyond remedy or retrace. On re-measuring the Seronge base with the compensation bar, the length came within  $7\frac{1}{2}$  inches of the length computed all the way down from Dehra Dun, a distance of 460 miles: thus confirming Col. Everest's suspicions respecting the true cause of the discordancy in the other bases, and showing the necessity of remeasuring such of them as may exhibit any anomaly. In fact, it is his intention to re-measure the base at Beder with the new compensation rods, prior to the termination of his labours in India: and it is his opinion, that it will be requisite to revise the whole of Colonel Lambton's work, before it can be properly joined on to the series of triangles recently completed with the new instruments.

ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—June 3.—The Rev. W. Kirby, F.R.S., Hon. President, in the chair.—Sir W. S. R. Cockburn, Dr. Kidd, and Messrs. Doubleday and Masters, were elected members.—The Rev. F. W. Hope mentioned a plan for the extirpation of the species of *Anobium*, which is found very abundantly in carved wood-work imported from the Netherlands. Various species of insects were exhibited by Messrs. Bainbridge, Fennell, and S. S. Saunders. Mr. Westwood detailed the proceedings of one of the saw-flies (Tenthredinidae), which he had observed in the act of flying over and depositing its eggs in the blossoms of the apple, at Hammersmith. In the preceding summer, the entire crop of that fruit had failed in consequence of the interior of the young fruit having been infested with the larva of a saw-fly, and he now had no hesitation in considering that the winged insects, recently observed, had been produced from some of these last year's larva.—The following memoirs were read:—"Descriptions of a New Holland species of *Bolbocerus* in the Collection of the Rev. F. W. Hope," by Mr. W. Bainbridge; "Experiments on Old Honeycomb, with a view to determine the Substance of which they were composed, by W. Sells, Esq.; 'Some Account of the Preparatory States of *Xiphydria dromedarius*, with observations upon its Affinities,' by Mr. Westwood. A discussion, in which Messrs. Kirby, Hope, Marshall, and others took part, ensued, relative to the fact of so many species of *Bolboceri*, of very large size, inhabiting New Holland, where, owing to the entire absence of the larger quadrupeds, the existence of *Coprophagous* insects, of any size, might have been doubted.

July 1.—The Rev. F. W. Hope, V.P., in the chair.—Mr. Barraud exhibited a very small wasp's nest, found attached on the inside of a sparrow's nest: from the very minute size of the cells in its interior, and the nature of the external envelope, it was considered, by Messrs. Waterhouse and Shuckard, that it could not be the production of any hitherto described British species of *Vespa*. It was stated that Mr. Raddon had recently procured three more specimens of the magnificent *Goliathus Druri*, from vessels trading to Africa. Mr. W. Bennett exhibited a living specimen of *Calosoma sycophanta*, captured on the coast of Kent, near Broadstairs, and which had been kept alive by feeding it upon moths. Mr. Westwood exhibited some remarkable beetles, from Mexico, belonging to the genus *Chactas*, and family *Melyridae*, the males of which, contrary



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